The Nation.

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The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND keeps up what pettish Senator Hoar calls "the modern method of finding fault" with private pension bills. They used to slip through without question, but when you have an Executive who actually examines them, reports them to be often scandalous, and usually based on no rule or reason, and shows that they set a bad precedent, certain to lead to more and more overriding of the general pension laws and emptying of the Treasury, it makes no end of trouble for Senators. Surely, as Senator Gallinger observed, it is "trivial and foolish" to compel the Senate to pass over a Presidential veto bills which should never have been passed at all. For our part, we hope Mr. Cleveland will keep on vetoing every profligate bill that Congress sends him up to the last hour of his term. He at least lays down a principle, and shows up the emptiness of the congressional pretence of desiring to be economical. We suspect one ground of senatorial rage at his vetoes is that they are a practical attempt to enforce economy. Senators say of this, as the French Minister for Foreign Affairs jestingly wrote to the French Minister to England, when the latter reported a saving in the expenses of the London legation, "It is a bad precedent—it is an economy."

The news seems to be pretty well authenticated that Gen. John J. McCook, of the law firm of Alexander & Green, has been designated by Mr. McKinley for the position of Attorney-General. If this be true, the President-elect could hardly have made a better selection. It is an added commendation that he has made this choice, not as a political makeweight, not to please Platt or to displease him, but solely because he has personal knowledge of Mr. McCook's high qualifications for the position. Such an appointment, like that of Mr. Gage to the Treasury, will bring strength to the cabinet, not only in its personnel, but still more in the confidence of the public.

The great opportunity of President McKinley in the cause of an improved public service is to redeem a number of offices, of the highest importance, which probably never could be brought under the classified system, and yet have no more connection with politics than the superintendency of the Coast Survey. Why not once and for all stop the nonsense of turning out the heads of great departments? Why should the Commissioner of Patents and his assistants be changed when the White House changes its politics? Why should the determination of the comparative claims of Bell, Drawbaugh, Gray, Edison, and Berliner to the creation of the telephone be any different next year from what it was last year? Why should the Assistant Treasurer and collectors of internal revenue be changed? What is there about the routine of their office which requires the incumbents to be "in sympathy with the Administration"? The enormous responsibility of an Assistant Treasurer requires him to be a man of the utmost coolness and evenness of temper. More than one admirable Treasurer has resigned from sheer anxiety. Is it likely to conduce to this tranquillity of mind that, as soon as the 4th of March comes, begins the uncertainty of how long he shall be kept in, depending wholly on the pull which the rival candidates have against each other? If Mr. McKinley, who has given such an unexpected mark of superiority to ordinary partisan theories by selecting Mr. Gage for the Treasury, will allow him to keep such of his force as he knows, and every one knows, are doing their work perfectly well, without caring how many hungry Republicans are after their places, he will add a leaf to his civil crown which very few of his predecessors can rival in brilliancy.

The action of the Senate on Thursday in confirming two nominations of Democrats for United States district judgeships, in Nebraska and North Dakota, is to be heartily commended. It was but a fortnight to the 4th of March, and as there was opposition to the confirmation of gold-standard men by silver Democrats, the Republicans could easily have carried both cases over, and so left the vacancies to be filled by McKinley with Republicans. It is an unexpected exhibition of good sense that the nominations of worthy men should have been confirmed under these circumstances, despite the fact that they are Democrats and will assume life offices which might have been captured for Republicans. If the question was regarded purely from the partisan standpoint, however, it was no less shrewd a course that the Republicans took. They needed the votes of gold-standard Democrats last fall, and may want them no less badly again in the future. Slaps in the face would not be the best way of securing a continuance of harmonious relations.

The announcement made by Gov. Bushnell that he intends to appoint Mr. Mark Hanna as Senator from Ohio when Senator Sherman resigns, is not unexpected. The backing and filling which has been noticed in that quarter for some weeks finds a rational explanation if we suppose that the Foraker machine which controls Ohio wanted to know exactly what it would get for letting Mr. Hanna have the office. It may be that Foraker himself would have refused on any terms to take Hanna for a colleague, but it is hard to dispute with the master of twenty legions. Undoubtedly the President-elect could take Foraker's henchmen away from him if necessary. Any augur inspecting the entrails at Cincinnati during the last two or three weeks could have told that there was a struggle going on between federal patronage and the State machine, and could have predicted that Cox, the local boss, would "line up" with the former eventually. The appointment of Hanna is certainly better for Ohio and for the country than that of a henchman of Foraker would be. As Mr. Hanna has never held any public position before, it is too early to make any forecast of his qualities as a Senator. Usually the man who is pitchforked into so high a place without preparation, or demonstrated capacity to fill it, disappoints his friends more than his enemies; but on the other hand we have so many examples of men who climbed up slowly and then turned out badly, that it is impossible to lay down any general rules. In the company of such old stagers as Chandler, Lodge, Quay, Platt, Gorman, and Morgan we think it most likely that Hanna will shine by comparison.

A senatorial deadlock which had lasted a full month was ended in South Dakota on Thursday by the reëlection of Senator Kyle. Mr. Kyle was sent to Washington at the same time with Peffer of Kansas, six years ago, as the result of a political revolution which lost the Republicans one of the new States which they had just admitted in order to strengthen their power in the Senate. Even if such a revolution continue, it is pretty certain to develop new leaders, as Peffer found when he sought another term. Kyle is exceptionally fortunate in getting his reelection, which, indeed, he owes rather to the Republicans than to the Populists, since most of his own party refused to support him. He has been as harmless as a Populist Senator can be expected to be. The other Senator from South Dakota, Pettigrew, who was reëlected by the Republicans two years ago, turned Populist last summer, and supported Bryan in the Presidential campaign. Both of the Senators from this new State are now, therefore, Populists, with terms running four and six years. Of the other new States, Idaho and Washington have this winter elected Populist Senators; and Utah has chosen a Democrat who accepts the Populist financial

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platform. One of North Dakota's Senators for the past four years has been a Democrat, whose term has two years yet to run. Here are six opposition Senators out of fourteen from those seven States. In addition, there are some among the remaining eight, like Cannon of Utah and Carter of Montana, who are entirely out of sympathy with the Republican position regarding the silver question, and whose attitude towards the party policy in the next Congress is uncertain. Never was an attempt to strengthen a political organization by unjustifiable means so completely defeated by the course of events as the Republican policy of securing permanent control of the Senate by admitting a lot of new States a few years ago.

Senator Wolcott has returned to London from his swing around the circle, and says that he has good reason to believe that his mission will have some of the good results hoped for. One of the results hoped for is the reëlection of Senator Wolcott—when the time comes; and to this result we are easily resigned. Mr. Wolcott made his mark as the only Senator who dared to proclaim the truth when the Venezuelan excitement was blazing in Washington city one year ago. He set a noble example. He rendered a great service. He really recalled the best examples of the past when the Senate was the country's greatest power and pride. Not less, but perhaps even more notably, did Mr. Wolcott vindicate his manhood when he refused to follow his colleague Teller in the support of Bryan last year. He took his political life in his hands then, and it would be a pity if he were to lose it. But, although our sympathies go out to Mr. Wolcott as a Senator and a man, they do not follow him as a hunter after international conferences. We think that he will fail, or rather that he has already failed, in that aim. We feel very sure that the saying of the *North German Gazette* will prove true, that the interview accorded to him by Prince Hohenlohe was purely one of courtesy, and did not partake of an official character, and that the same is true of his visits to London and Paris. The governments of the Old World do not comprehend the kind of diplomacy that takes place outside of diplomatic circles. Moreover, they have had a good deal of experience of this back-door bimetallic solicitation on our part and of the consequences thereof. They have acquired the art of shifting upon each other the onus of declining. What France, for instance, means when she says that she cannot go into bimetallism unless Germany and England do likewise, is that she hopes that Germany and England will do nothing of the kind. She knows, too, that she does not run much risk.

After long and somewhat mysterious sticking in the committee on coinage, the bill for an international bimetallic conference was reported to the House on Monday. An amendment has been tacked on giving the President the option of proceeding by way of diplomatic negotiations, instead of a conference, if he thinks he can more easily debase our currency by that method. This doubles the humbug without decreasing the danger of the bill. We suppose it will pass the House, though evidently not without debate and the telling of unpalatable truth by some Republicans. But the long delay of the bill has given President Cleveland a chance, which we sincerely trust he will improve, to kill it by a pocket veto. It is even hinted that Speaker Reed has nursed the measure along for the express purpose of getting it finally crushed in that way. However that may be, we hope to see the President's refusal to sign the bill. He may, of course, argue that it is a matter solely affecting his successor, and that courtesy to him would suggest letting the bill become a law. But we think a higher view, both of propriety and duty, would lead him to have neither part nor lot in such a tricky and dangerous measure, and to make his record for opposing all forms of unsound currency complete and consistent down to the very end of his term. Let Mr. McKinley pull his own bimetallic chestnuts out of the fire.

The bill "to increase the efficiency of the foreign service of the United States and to provide for the reorganization of the consular service," which the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House agreed last week to report favorably, is not, of course, expected to become a law this session. It will be, however, a basis for legislation in the next Congress, and really marks of itself a great opening of the congressional mind to the facts which reformers and business men have long been proclaiming. It is a little late, but it is none the less welcome, to have a congressional committee declare:

> "Our consuls should be trained for their positions and pass an examination on such subjects as the laws regulating shipping, the commercial treaties existing between their own and other countries, the laws relating to intestates, on the consular regulations of the United States, and on such other subjects as relate to their duties. They should also be required to have a practical knowledge of French or of the language of the country to which they are to be sent."

The report also dwells, in what would once have been thought the most fawning way, upon the experience of Great Britain, and even ventures to ask and answer the deadly question, "Where will such a specially educated class come from?" From the young men of the country, it replies, now crowding the professions and ready and eager to enter upon a diplomatic career, if it were only to be made a career where intelligence and fidelity would be rewarded as in other callings. Into the details of the bill, with its provisions for boards of examiners and classification of consuls, it is not necessary now to enter. As it stands, it is a most reassuring sign of the times and of the steady progress in rescuing the public service from the spoilsmen which we are making.

The present House of Representatives, after voting $15,000,000 for rivers and harbors and public buildings, seems disposed to economize on battle-ships. We see no objection to this, although we see very much to the appropriation in question. It is certain that the line must be drawn somewhere if the McKinley Administration is to be saved from wreck on the financial side, and it had better be drawn at warlike rather than at peaceful expenditures. "In time of peace prepare for war," is an adage better suited to a past age than to the present, and to other parts of the world than to this. Most likely our half-civilized Senate, that refuses or neglects to ratify the treaty of arbitration that has been negotiated at its own instance after great trouble and difficulty, will pile on a battle-ship amendment when the bill reaches that body. If so, we hope that the House will stand firm or that the President will kill the bill. The present session has now reached the stage where he can put any bill to death by doing nothing to it. The sundry civil bill, with its monstrous appropriation of $50,000,000, is in that category.

Our old friends of the American Screw Company had their annual meeting at Providence a few days ago. The report of the President and Board of Directors contains some wholesome views on the subject of the tariff. It says:

> "We have gotten beyond the necessity for a high tariff; pools have proven to be of no permanent advantage to us; we have to adapt ourselves to new methods of manufacture and new conditions requiring adjustment which only time can accomplish, but are hopeful that with reviving confidence in general business and a larger demand for our product—the greater because of enforced economies of late—by this time next year we may inform you of a more prosperous business and a larger employment of our plant than for many years past, and at moderately remunerative rates."

In other words, the tariff has exhausted itself so far as this industry is concerned. It has exhausted itself as to steel rails, steel billets, pig iron, and many other things on which high duties are still retained which have no *raison d'être*. Some of the tariff organs, a little flustered, are telling us that this condition has been brought about by protection itself. We have no wish to discuss an abstraction, nor to deprive them of a belief which gives them comfort. If they will simply join in repealing duties which they concede to be no longer needed, we shall not seek to deprive them of a pious opinion.

The *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh has a very striking letter from England on the subject of the introduction into British markets of American steel billets and bars on a scale of com-

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mercial magnitude. The amounts imported or contracted for are said to reach 22,000 tons. At first this news was received with incredulity, for although the importation of American pig iron has been going on for some time, it was not believed possible that American steel could be laid down in England in competition with their own producers. The fact which they have to face, however, is that steel bars from the Carnegie works are regularly imported into Staffordshire for sheet-iron mills, and into Lancashire for wire works, at 5s. to 7s. 6d. per ton *less* than the actual selling price of British billets. The opinion of British makers is that the present conditions are exceptional and due to the depressed condition of trade in the United States. The belief is expressed that when trade revives there will be a rise of prices in this country which will prevent the continuance of the export movement. The answer is that there is no obstacle to the increase of production in this country to meet any demand, domestic or foreign. That is, the raw materials exist here in the greatest abundance, and there is no limit to the multiplication of machinery. Hence if the home demand should overtake the supply it would be only for a short time. The United States has entered on a new career as a manufacturing country, and, so far as steel is concerned, the conviction is slowly forcing itself on both British and Continental opinion that we have not only the best supplies of raw material, but also better apparatus for working it than exists anywhere else in the world.

One of the most open efforts which have been made thus far to destroy the secrecy of the new ballot system appears in a proposition which is before the New Hampshire Legislature. This is, that, in towns and wards casting 250 votes or more, the election officers be permitted to begin sorting and counting the vote before the polls close, "so as to make an early declaration possible." This would enable the party managers to ascertain the state of the poll at any time, and thus lay plans to change the result if possible. It would enable them to drum up recruits, buy votes, or do anything else within their power to save the day if they saw that the election was going against them. Corrupt voters would hold back till the last hour in order to dispose of their goods under the most favorable conditions, and a state of affairs would be created which would make the ballot a farce. It is fitting that this proposition should be accompanied by another, doubling the number of names now required to make a nomination by petition. Both are assaults upon the Australian system as an aid to good government through honest elections, and if the people of New Hampshire allow them to become law they will find themselves put back where they were before the new system was established.

Gov. Black's hope of taking the starch out of our civil-service law received its quietus in the decision of the Second Appellate Division of the Supreme Court on Friday, sustaining unanimously the previous decision of Justice Keogh as to the self-executing character of the civil-service-reform amendment to the Constitution. Summed up in a sentence, the decision is that the Constitution is supreme, and that it gives the courts power to review the action of the Governor, Legislature, mayors, heads of departments, and civil-service commissioners, and to compel them to comply with the constitutional mandate to make all appointments and promotions according to merit and fitness, ascertained, so far as practicable, by competitive examinations. The only question to be considered is as to the "practicability" of such examinations, and this is not to be decided by the officials, but by the courts, and they have decided, in all cases which have come before them, in favor of practicability. The courts, in fact, from the lowest to the highest, are now arrayed in solid ranks against Gov. Black and the Gruber-Van Allen Progressives, and the outlook for breaking down the "civil service" or in any way weakening the rigor of its administration is hopelessly dark. By appealing to the courts, the reformers can compel any official, whether the Legislature has included his department under the civil-service regulations or not, to select his subordinates only after competitive examinations. District-Attorney Olcott should think seriously on this subject and bow to the inevitable before he is forced to do so.

The protest which Mayor Strong and President Low have filed against the bipartisan Police Board, Municipal Assembly, and power-of-removal provisions of the new charter is a most welcome document. It will furnish a strong working basis for a full and rational discussion of the charter, and this we have not yet had. Their objections are precisely those which have been made many times in these columns, and in making them now Mr. Low puts himself again upon the impregnable ground which he occupied in his chapter in Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' and in his *Century Magazine* article. This city has at last secured official utterance as to its rights in the matter, and its voice must be heeded at Albany. If we must have a new charter at once, let us at least have it in the best form possible, and not in its present undeniably bad form, because, as Messrs. Strong and Low say, it has in three most important particulars been "constructed upon a wrong theory." There is ample time in which to amend it and make it conform to the right theory, or to the teaching of a half century of experience.

The Hawaiians are getting ready, with the other people who want something desperately, to move on McKinley in Washington early in March. They are evidently a little nervous about the Republican cooling towards annexation. That passage in the 'Recollections' of the new Secretary of State in which he pledged himself to do "nothing to extend its [the United States] *limits or to add* new dangers by acquisition of foreign territory," has been the subject of much sad pondering in Honolulu. The only hope there is, that Sherman didn't really mean it, or that McKinley had not heard of this when he chose his head of the State Department. Another cause of annexation dejection is the result of a private canvass of the United States Senate. Letters were received by a Honolulu business man from "about thirty" Senators whose present views on annexation he had sought. Eleven of these either declined to commit themselves or were positively opposed to annexation. It is obvious that if that proportion holds, no treaty of annexation could pass the Senate. The real difficulty is, as the Hawaiians are finding out, that the furious desire of the Republicans to annex Hawaii three years ago was strictly for that time and against that President only. Now, we fear, there will be a disgusting disposition to consider any treaty of annexation on its merits.

The Powers acting in concert about Crete still hold the Greek wolf by the ears, and are bringing what pressure they can to bear on King George's Government to make it easy for them to let go. The King has issued a proclamation beseeching popular calm and self-restraint, with what prospect one may judge from our Athens letter, on another page, in which the Greek temperament is shown in quite a different connection. The wolf, meanwhile, has got its lodgment in Crete in the shape of Colonel Vassos and his regulars, and, as in Munchausen's fable, seems likely to eat its way into the Moslem carcass in spite of, or even because of, the blockade, which, if it keeps out reinforcements and supplies from the mainland, equally repels Turkish interference. What may happen on the Thessalian border before Greece is coerced into leaving the fate of Crete in the hands of the Powers, no one can tell. The "concert" is by no means perfect, and is liable to vary through every degree to discord in the event of certain contingencies. If the Eastern Question could be settled by gunboats alone, it would present little difficulty. But a general uprising in the Balkan Peninsula is not to be met by shutting up the Peiræus or bombarding insurgents from the port of Canea.

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HAPPY-GO-LUCKY FINANCE.

THE haphazard management of our national revenue and expenditure glares at one whichever way he may look in Washington. The President advised Congress to be economical, to give the Wilson bill a chance, and to fall back on the Treasury surplus to meet a temporary deficit. Congress vowed it was horrible to think of using for current expenses money got by bond-sales, but has gone ahead and voted such swollen appropriations that this very money will have to be used to pay them. As for the Wilson bill, that must be replaced as speedily as possible, for two reasons: first, it was flooding and ruining the country with foreign imports; second, it was not bringing in enough imports to furnish a decent revenue. The fact that these two reasons kill each other is only a motive for urging them both with added vehemence. Equal consistency and beautiful logic are revealed in the scheme of the new tariff bill. Rates are to be marked up so as to keep out imports, and are to be so high that the duties on imports will fairly flood the Treasury with money.

These illustrations of our happy-go-lucky methods in public finance might be indefinitely multiplied. The truth is, we have trusted to luck and have blundered cheerfully ahead for the past ten years. Secretary Fairchild was the last head of the Treasury able to estimate the national revenue without being ludicrously wide of the mark. His successor, Mr. Windom, complimented him on his accurate forecast, but since then the guessing has been wild. Senator Aldrich, the great tariff expert, was many millions out of the way in stating what the revenue from the McKinley bill would be. Yet he and Mr. Dingley will soon be telling the country to a dollar what amount of revenue the new McKinley bill will yield. Mr. McKinley brought in his bill with the distinct assertion that it was meant to raise prices, yet within two years he was presiding over a Republican national convention which solemnly declared that the effect of his bill had been to lower prices.

Is it any wonder that, with such men and such methods in control of our national finance, we have ceased to produce financiers in public life? Gen. Garfield was the last chairman of the ways and means committee whose speeches showed economic insight and knowledge, who had a firm grasp of the principles of taxation, and whose annual summing up of the nation's income and outgo possessed something of the skill and interest of Mr. Gladstone's speeches on the English budget. Since then we have gone riotously forward, presuming on our rude health to enable us to pull through every imprudence. For long years we seemed able to do so with ease. The surplus kept heaping up in spite of extravagance, with the result of encouraging us to fresh extravagance. But we at last found that even the vigorous American system could not endure a prolonged financial debauch. For four years we have been suffering the well-known "next-morning" symptoms. The patient reluctantly admits that he is ill and sends for the doctor.

But what treatment does Dr. Dingley prescribe? Why, from all accounts, another course of high living. No economy—no leaving off the liqueurs and *pousse-cafés* to which the pampered patient has been accustomed; he would be angry and might change physicians if that were suggested. The thing to be recommended is a going back to the full feeding of the McKinley bill. High duties and thumping revenues will make all well again. That, as nearly as we are able to gather, is the new Dingley-McKinley programme.

Now it must be pointed out that this old happy-go-lucky method of doing it is no longer possible. Conditions have so changed since 1883 and 1890 that tariff legislation which was reasonable in those years, considered from the point of view of revenue, will now be only ludicrous. The case was clearly stated by Secretary Carlisle in his last annual report. Mr. Carlisle is, every protectionist knows, a very bad man; but he happens to have a terribly lucid intellect, and a habit of leaving irrefragable statements behind him for his opponents to break their teeth on. Such a statement he made bearing upon the point in hand, and it is this:

> "Nor do I believe that, under existing industrial and trade conditions here and abroad, an increase of duties upon articles now dutiable, with the exception of a few which are not produced at all in this country and others which are not produced in sufficient quantities to supply the demands of our own people, would yield the Government much, if any, additional revenue. What has already been said concerning the ability of our manufacturers and others to command the home market, to the exclusion of foreign products similar to their own, shows that in the selection of imported articles for taxation for the purpose of raising revenue the Government is necessarily confined to comparatively narrow limits. The cost of production in all the great manufacturing nations has been so nearly equalized by modern inventions and economies that movements of their several products from one to another cannot take place upon a large scale, or for any considerable length of time, if these products are burdened in the markets to which they are sent with charges to which they are not subjected in the countries of their origin; and this tendency toward equalization of cost is still going on and must continue. A very small tax or charge will now entirely prevent the importation of many articles which a few years ago constituted a large proportion of our total dutiable merchandise and contributed very materially to our public revenues. . . . Some increase of revenue might be secured by imposing higher rates, but even this will prove to be an annually diminishing amount except in the cases of such articles as cannot on account of natural conditions be hereafter produced here."

Since Mr. Carlisle wrote this, events in the commercial world have strikingly confirmed it. Imports under the Wilson bill have not increased, despite the apparent imminence of higher duties. Always before, in such circumstances, imports have run up enormously. A perfect flood came in the last few months before the McKinley bill took effect. To guard against a similar thing now has been one of the great worries of Mr. Dingley. But if the trade returns keep on as they have been going, he need not trouble himself. There will be no deluge of importations. The reason is that in all the old protected lines of manufacture the American producer is more and more completely supplying the home market. Cost of production has been so reduced in one way and another that it is now the European manufacturer who is afraid of the American. It follows that the good old days of putting on a high duty both to protect and to bring in revenue are past. Mr. Dingley will have to make his election. He can have protection or he can have revenue; he cannot have both by the same measure. What he will really be driven to, it is almost certain, is some new form of taxation. Profligate Congresses can no longer be supported on a customs revenue. There will have to be new objects of taxation and sources of revenue, with the appropriations running steadily above a billion dollars. Mr. Dingley may try to get on by the old happy-go-lucky method, but he will surely find that it will be neither happy nor lucky, and that it will not go.

MR. FOWLER'S SPEECH.

CONGRESSMAN FOWLER'S speech at the Massachusetts Reform Club's dinner is a valuable contribution to the political as well as the financial thought of the day. It is important most of all for its boldness. Mr. Fowler "takes the bull by the horns." There is no other way to take the bull, because his horns will be thrust through us if they are not stopped in some way. The situation is changed by the election of last year only as regards time. The victors in that contest have time to put the finances of the nation on a new footing. Unless they do so they will find in the next campaign the same kind of battle that they had in 1896. The issue will be free coinage at 16 to 1, which means the single silver standard. The Bryanites may trim their platform somewhat differently as regards the Supreme Court. They may make themselves a trifle less obnoxious on the score of anarchism, but on the question of depreciation of the standard of value, which is the main question, they will be not one whit better, but will be more confident than ever. The only chance of beating them is by changing the issue and bringing back business prosperity. It is possible to do this, but it requires the boldest and most decisive measures.

It is an irrefragable proposition that the present depression in trade and industry is due to want of confidence in the standard of value, for, as Mr. Fowler puts it, "the question is still open for debate whether the American dollar is really fifty or one hundred cents." This is a fact known to all men. Every member of Congress, of every shade of belief,

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understands and feels it. Mr. Fowler proceeded as follows, and we quote his words, not because they contain anything novel, but because they are put before the public without varnish by a member of the committee of the House of Representatives having these things in charge:

"Have you ever thought of it? We are subjecting our national honor to a daily debate at every directors' table where a discussion is had about securities. In every broker's office, in every lawyer's rooms where loans are negotiated, in every home where investments are talked over, the possibility of a change in our standard of value lurks like a 'skeleton in the closet.'

"Across our minds in hot pursuit, following this frightful possibility of dishonor, sweep our demand obligations, now amounting to more than $1,000,000,000, making us shudder to think that the terms of our nation's obligations are such that while the Secretary of the Treasury under Mr. McKinley will see a gold background to the word 'coin,' a Secretary of the Treasury under Mr. Bryan would have seen only a black background, symbolizing death to our credit and eternal dishonor to our nation's name."

The Bryanites understand this as well as anybody. They know that business revival and national prosperity are impossible while doubt hangs over the standard of value. For this reason they will oppose everything that looks to a change. They are satisfied, in a political sense, with things as they are, because they believe that time is working for them. They are right in thinking so. The only hope for the Republicans lies in progress. If the political complexion of the Senate prevents decisive legislation, they can at least make a start. They can get in line and show what they would do if they had the power. If the action so proposed is on the lines marked out by the Indianapolis conference, that fact will help to restore confidence and also to bring the Senate once more under Republican control.

Mr. Fowler agrees with the Indianapolis conference that the first step should be the funding of the entire Government debt, including all its circulating notes, into bonds bearing 2 per cent. interest. He believes that this can be done. If the bonds are made specifically payable in gold, he is probably right. British 2½ per cent. consols are now selling at 112¼. Our credit ought to be as good. Mr. Fowler has a banking scheme of his own which he thinks would furnish a market for those 2 per cents. We need not go into the details of that plan now, because we think that the sale of a Government bond at 2 per cent., if all doubt as to the standard of value is removed, is possible. Bankers can answer that question. The result would be a saving of nearly $15,500,000 of annual interest. This meets the objection that the Government now saves the interest on the amount represented by its circulating notes. It does nothing of the kind. The existence of these notes, as Comptroller Eckels showed in his last annual report, is a greater expense to the Government than the interest on a corresponding amount of bonds would be. The notes depress the Government credit and prevent it from borrowing at the lowest market rate. Being a menace to the Government credit, they operate still more disastrously on private credit. They are the rock ahead of every business enterprise whatsoever. We shall never have permanent prosperity again while they are outstanding.

These truths need to be reiterated. It is seldom that they are presented more forcibly than they were by Mr. Fowler at Boston. They point the only path of safety to the Republican party. Will the party have the courage to take the bull by the horns? There was one similar occasion when it did have such courage, and it profited greatly thereby. In 1875 the Republicans were in a worse position politically than they are in to-day. Public opinion, looked at superficially, was not more favorable to specie resumption then than it is to greenback retirement now. Yet the party was *in extremis*. Action of some kind was indispensably necessary. It was death to stand still. The party passed the resumption act and was saved.

SOUTHERN ELECTION METHODS.

The treatment of election contests by Congress this winter merits more attention and commendation than it has received. Less partisanship has been exhibited in the action, both of the House committee and of the whole body, than ever before, and a number of Southern Democrats have been retained in their seats by the votes of Northern Republicans when the cases of the contestants were quite as strong as have served in the past to excuse contrary action. Even when the claim was made that Republican negroes had virtually been defrauded of their rights by the establishment of an educational qualification, through the Australian ballot system, which was not fairly enforced, New England Representatives have refused to turn out sitting Democrats. In the Virginia case of Yost against Tucker Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, in closing his speech in behalf of the sitting Democrat, said:

"We have for years here attempted to build up the Republican party in the South by seating this man and that man and by patronage; and the result is that they display their chief vitality and strength in our national Republican conventions, where they generally appear with as many different delegations as there are candidates for the Presidency. I say, what the Republicans of the South now need is to be treated upon robust principles. They have been coddled to the point of destruction. But, first and foremost, we should do justice to the people of Virginia. That record clearly shows to my mind that the people of the Tenth District are an honest people. And when to day it appears that they have chosen a Representative in conformity with their laws, we should not be guilty of the partisan action of turning him from our doors."

This attitude of the Northern Republicans in Congress shows that all danger of an attempt to revive force-bill legislation is past, and that the nation has finally concluded to leave all the questions involved in Southern election methods to be settled by the people of that section. Undoubtedly this determination will hasten a just solution of the problem. So long as the Southern whites were threatened with federal interference in their elections, local sentiment was devoted to averting this danger rather than reforming the evils which furnished the excuse for force bills. Since the federal election laws were repealed three years ago, public opinion throughout the South has been developing in the right direction more rapidly than during the whole quarter of a century before that time.

The first thing to be secured was a realization of the fact that cheating in elections was an evil not to be endured. This conviction was never before so general as now. The practice was started by whites who wanted to defraud blacks of their votes. As was inevitable, it has been extended in its range until one faction of whites cheats another. This has been done by the Tillman faction against the Conservatives in South Carolina, by the dominant element in Alabama Democracy against first the Kolbites and later the sound-money men, and in Tennessee by the silver wing of the Memphis Democracy against Congressman Patterson's supporters; while the Republicans of the latter State, largely whites, have been defrauded of the Governorship twice in succession by the white Democrats.

Never before has the Southern press reflected so strong a public sentiment against the continuance of such practices as during the present winter. Indeed, the necessity of putting an end to such frauds is now generally recognized as the most urgent issue. An interesting controversy now going on in the Mississippi press shows how the whites of that State are coming to realize that the practical elimination of the negro vote is no assurance of good government. The Vicksburg *Commercial Herald* recently declared that "the single-party condition," which now exists in Mississippi, "means political despotism," and that, by reason of such despotism, scandals on the part of public officials are possible which would be out of the question were party relations normal. Its statement having been challenged, the *Commercial Herald* repeats it with specifications, as follows:

"In the campaign of 1895 the drunken sprees of a certain candidate for high office were simply notorious and gross. But for the abnormal political condition of the State, he would have been forced from the race by the temperance and moral sentiment of the State. On the contrary, he was triumphantly nominated. During the sitting of the Legislature a judicial appointment was foreshadowed of one whose reputation for drunkenness was so flagrant that a revolt was stirred against it. It was heard of no more until the Legislature had adjourned and the check of a Senate confirmation was not immediately impending. Then the appointment was made. Would these things have been possible were there two parties, rivals in the public confidence, in Mississippi?"

No less encouraging from another point

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of view is a recent deliverance by a representative black man of Mississippi. Bishop Derrick of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, whose charge covers the States of Mississippi and Arkansas, recently attended a meeting of the bishops in New Orleans, and had some very hopeful things to report. Going from the North, he confesses himself "surprised at the willingness on the part of the business element to accord recognition to colored men who are carrying on commercial as well as farming business"; and says that "the relations existing between the races are far better than I had any conception they were." The Bishop speaks enthusiastically of the provision made by the State for the education of children *without regard to color*, and the "*disposition* to enlighten the masses, that they may become intelligent and law-abiding citizens." He proceeds to make this striking statement regarding the suffrage question:

"I do not, like some of my people, condemn the Mississippi Constitution and the 'understanding' clause in it. It may not be just what it should, but yet I think it will tend to help my people. For instance, in all parts of this large State you find negro boys by the hundreds in school, becoming educated. Well, for a while that clause may disfranchise a large number of voters, but in ten years from now that class of men who are going through the schools will become intelligent voters, and will wield the balance of power in politics, thereby giving to the negro a prominent place in the political world."

The Northern Republicans in Congress who refuse any longer to try righting wrongs in Southern elections by passing force bills, or by voting Republican claimants into seats in the House, are fully justified by the course of events. That section only needs to be left to itself, and the decent elements of both races will work out a cure of the evil.

TROUBLE IN THE UNIVERSITY AT ATHENS.

ATHENS, February 1, 1897.

THREE days ago I fell upon a scene that reminded me more of a battle than anything I had seen since I was honorably discharged from the army thirty-three years ago. I was witness of a combat between the military and the strikers when a Greek friend pressed my arm, and, saying, "It is not safe for you here," tried to lead me away. Just then a pistol-shot gave emphasis to his words, but I stayed long enough to see a wounded striker, covered with blood, carried past me still shaking his arm in defiance. Of the soldiers, who were doing their best to restore order, one was severely wounded and others less severely. The strikers complained in the morning papers of that day that the military had not treated them gently enough, and asserted that whatever mischief might now result was to be laid to this unkindness.

But I have plunged *in medias res* without explaining the origin of the strike. Those who know Greece best will be surprised to hear of a strike in a country which they doubtless think of as the one blessed country in the civilized world where the laborer, although his regular pay is only thirty-five cents a day, is so satisfied with his lot that there is no war between labor and capital; the one country where socialism and anarchy can get no foothold—a place of plain living and great contentment. This is all true. Here strikes are confined to the University. Their cause is usually a spirit of resistance to compulsory education. Two years ago the University Council decided that the law students should be required to learn Latin enough to read Roman Law in the original. The students decided that this was not necessary. By thumping with their canes on the floors of the lecture-rooms and yelling, they prevented the professors from giving instruction. As they could not endure the spectacle of other departments continuing to work, they demanded of them what would be called in America a "sympathetic strike." This was acceded to, and the result was so much disturbance in and around the University that the military police had to be called in to keep order. At an unfortunate time, when the sympathetic strikers were inclining to go back to work, the chief of police on a trying occasion called the student body by a hard name. This welded them together. They claimed that in their persons the University had been insulted. Some of the professors, also, taking this view, joined the strike, which had hitherto been directed against them. It was now decided that no more work was to be done until the offending chief of police was removed by the Government and the stigma removed.

This was ultimately done under the guise of *transferring him to another post*, but nearly half of the University year was lost to study by the Latin phase and the insult phase of the strike. The rest of the year was an "era of good feeling." In the reconciliation almost as little was said about Latin as was said in the treaty of Ghent about the impressing of American seamen. During the last days of this strike the students, having plenty of time on their hands, became leading agitators against the Tricoupi Ministry, and undoubtedly contributed essentially to its overthrow. This successful playing of a political rôle was very gratifying to the vanity of the students, who feel amply qualified to manage the politics of Greece.

This year, about two months ago, another great strike arose from the same feeling of resistance to compulsory education. Prof. Galvani, the most eminent surgeon in Greece, who a few years ago consented with great reluctance to take upon himself the duties of a professorship in the Medical School, required what the medical students thought excessive clinical work. When he insisted, they proceeded to break up his exercises by the usual tactics. At one of his clinical exercises they stirred up such a dust that the professor, recognizing the danger to the patient in the critical operation, and irritated at the unseasonableness of the demonstration, called the students "a disgrace to Greece, and the worst students in the world." The students, taking little note of the fact that the patient—a woman—died, perhaps in consequence of the disturbance, raised the old cry of ὕβρις, stopped work, and demanded of the University authorities, not an apology from the professor—that, they declared, would be inadequate—but his deposition. When this was refused, other departments joined the strike, even the theological students going into it with a will. But when, after a little time, the law students, perhaps realizing that a *little* study was not a weariness to the flesh, began to show towards the movement a coldness shared by some of the students' local associations (*e. g.*, one including all the students from the Ionian Islands), the medical students, swarming into the law-school lecture-rooms, made bedlam there also. Then the police came up, and, besides trying to suppress the disorder, searched the students for weapons. This touch of the police was like an electric current making a chemical fusion. The law department as well as all others was now one with the medical department against the common enemy. It was then that the shots of which I spoke at the outset were fired.

The students that day took possession of the University as a fort, provided themselves not only with pistols, but with a considerable number of muskets, provisioned themselves, and defied the police to dislodge them. About five hundred of the three thousand or more students in the University held the fort, while the others remained outside working up sympathy for their fellows and antipathy against the military. For three days and nights this state of things continued. The University declared the Medical School closed, and established a cordon of soldiers about the University, but made no attempt to recover the building, probably more from the desire to avoid bloodshed than from the fear that the besieged would carry out their threat of blowing up the University with dynamite.

The besieged hoisted the national flag over the University, talked of shedding their blood to the last drop rather than come out, and secured the insertion in the papers of the following proclamation to the Greek people:

"O people (Λαέ)! We are your children. Those who have been appointed by you, O people, to protect us, oppress us, persecute us. They insult us, they disgrace us, and, instead of making us reparation, they arrest us, they put us in prison, they slay us. We protest before you, O people, and invoke your aid and your protection. People of Greece! will you remain apathetic spectators of these acts of lawlessness?

"THE STUDENTS OF THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY."

There was, in fact, much sympathy aroused for these ardent youths, who now became a factor in politics. The Ministry was really in some danger from boys whose talk for a foreigner had something ludicrous in it. But, as the students had announced, as their only offer toward the solution of the question, (1) the reopening of the Medical School, (2) the deposition of Galvani, (3) the punishment of the police, (4) the release of the students already under arrest, the Ministry could hardly do anything but tighten the cordon around the University, and try to starve out the garrison.

On the third day (Friday, January 29), however, the students who remained outside organized a mass-meeting and a procession which was reinforced by many of the populace, making a demonstration that threatened to draw off the cordon of troops from the University. But the chief of police, with another body of troops, met the procession straight in front near the Ministry of Finance on Stadion Street, and dispersed it after some resistance and firing on both sides, in which a boy riding on a horse-car was instantly killed and several persons wounded. The chief of police, riding at the head of his men, was made a target, and had his life saved by his watch, which was battered into a shapeless mass by a bullet.

That night the city was in great commotion. There seemed no reason why, when the situation had become so bad, much worse

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things might not happen. In the night, however, the Ministry decided to try mediation in order to get the students to leave the University peacefully. In the morning several professors, accompanied by the Metropolitan of Athens, the highest ecclesiastical authority in Greece, went, at the suggestion of the Prime Minister, who is also temporarily Minister of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs, and treated with the besieged concerning the evacuation of the University. As the latter had already suffered from lack of food and water, they consented to come out. They assert that not only were their previous demands acceded to, but that also a promise was given that a new rector and council should be chosen, and that full credit should be given for this semester, so much of which had been lost for the medical department in the strike. If all this were promised, it is readily understood why they went out so jubilantly as the cordon of soldiers parted and let them pass. They could hardly have asked anything more unless it were that one of their number should be made Minister of Education. This at least is certain, that whereas the chief of police had proclaimed that they should never come out in a body and with their weapons, he now allowed them to march out with the honors of war, so to speak, not subjecting them to any search whatever, insisting only that the muskets should be left behind. The Ministry denied on the following day that any promises for the future were made on its part, and proceeded to arrest several of the ringleaders as individuals. Again the student body is in an uproar. Most of the professors are reported as saying that the few who went to mediate went as individuals, and were not empowered to represent the University, and that if Prof. Galvani should be forced to resign, they would hand in their resignations in a body. The mediating professors, who yesterday were vying with one another for the credit of effecting "the great solution," are beginning to show a readiness to leave this distinction to the other claimants, now that the students are raising the cry of bad faith against them.

The newspapers, which are, as usual, mostly Opposition journals, make some capital out of the delay of the Government in restoring order; but the *Asty* of January 31 couples this with some reflections of a more wide-reaching character, as follows:

"In the hour when there is opening up before Greece the darkened horizon of the future, and when we ought to see her united, with all her powers bent toward a great object, proceeding on the way of truth and safety in harmony and love—at this moment, alas! we see her rent with factions, without a helmsman, but, also, alas! in want of those who let themselves be guided, without faith and without courage; showing that personally perhaps we Greeks are not lacking in good gifts, but that we do lack the uniting bond, the sentiment of obedience to authority and of mutual responsibility which forms nations really worthy of a high calling."

These words come with a singular propriety, almost solemnity, now that Greece is looking forward to becoming a joint heir with other young and pushing nations in the legacy soon about to be left in the Balkan Peninsula by the Sick Man. No word was so frequent in the mouths of the students and their friends in these exciting days as "honor." How shall this question be settled so as to save the *honor* of the students and not break the *magic spell* of the University? was what seemed to weigh heavily on everybody's mind. Since honor is the subject of their story, would that a leader might arise to teach them the lesson that the "path of duty is the way to glory." X.

CRÖY'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, February 10, 1897.

THE Duke de Cröy bethought him towards 1764 to have his memoirs copied by a good calligrapher, and had the first volumes bound. "I saw with satisfaction," he says, "that this work, which had frightened me by its size, would be curious." It is curious, indeed, by reason of its great candor and simplicity, and the copies here mentioned are carefully preserved at the castle of Dülmen, the most habitual residence of the present Duke of Cröy.

The Dauphin died on the 20th of December, 1765, of consumption. He was very pious and well behaved. Since the death of Madame de Pompadour, Louis XV. had taken no mistress, and all was quiet at court. The Dauphin died at Fontainebleau, but was buried at Sens, according to his will; his heart only was carried to Saint-Denis. "The Dauphin's death occupied all minds, but at the end of February (1766) the Parlement of Paris woke up and asked the King to reëstablish the ancient Parlement of Brittany, which he had suppressed, and to submit to itself the affair of M. de la Chalotais." Louis XV. went in person to the Parlement, having announced to the First President that he would himself preside on the 3d of March. He arrived with an escort of two regiments of the guards. "Nobody in Paris was aware of it. Louis XV. met, on the Pont-Neuf, the Host which was being carried to one sick. He stopped and kneeled in the mud. When the Host passed, the people, charmed with this action, shouted, 'Vive le Roi!'—a thing which did not happen often." In the great chamber the King was received by the Parlement. "He impressed everybody by his majestic air, and said: 'I come myself to make you my answer and explain to you my will. Here it is, written with my own hand.' And he ordered that his answer should be read. After this was done he ordered that the Parlement's late *arrêté* should be expunged, and saw it done by the clerk. He then retired and returned to Versailles."

Cröy adds that the Parlement tried to resist, and made complaints (they were called officially remonstrances). A deputation took them to the King, who nevertheless maintained his orders. The Parlement came in its turn to make remonstrances in the matter of the Parlement of Brittany; the King answered that he had taken his oath to God, not to the nation, that he had no account to render to the Parlement, and that all authority resided solely in his own royal person. "Everybody," says the timid Cröy, "found this a little too strong." The long struggle between the kings and the power of the parlements was terminated by the French Revolution; but, at the coronation of Charles X., long after the Revolution, nothing was changed in the formula of the royal oath which Louis XV. had opposed to the Parlement.

Louis XV. at length replaced Mme. de Pompadour with the famous Du Barry. "What most occupied society in the month of December, 1768, was the apprehended presentation of a Dame Du Barry, which was making much noise. The *libertins* screamed the loudest, . . . the discreet who loved the King wept, prayed, and were silent. We must do the same." The presentation was postponed for some time, from day to day, chiefly by a fall of the King on the hunting-field, but finally took place on the 22d of April, 1769. Mme. Du Barry was presented alone, no lady being present. "It made an enormous sensation." In April, Cröy went to Versailles. He tells us that

"the King, notwithstanding his sixty years, was more in love than ever with the new lady. She amused him; he looked younger. There was a question whether or no she would attend the coming wedding [of the Dauphin with the Archduchess Marie Antoinette], for which she had ordered charming clothes. She was fond of dress, and would have been inconsolable without an occasion for putting them on. She was good, and with the exception of her hatred of the Duke de Choiseul, with whom she found herself every day at his Majesty's, she wished no ill to anybody. I was surprised to see that, amiable as was M. de Choiseul, he did not attempt to win her good graces, but seemed to brave her."

Cröy gives an accurate description of the magnificent festivals which took place on the occasion of the marriage of the Dauphin. "Notwithstanding the general distress, France wished to surpass Vienna. . . . For us three the clothes cost more than 22,000 livres. . . . It could be said with reason that this was not very philosophical for an age which prided itself on its philosophy." We note in Cröy's long account that at the King's supper at La Muette, on the day of the arrival of the Archduchess and on the eve of the marriage, there were forty people seated, among them the Countess Du Barry, "which made people judge that she would soon crush the party which was opposed to her." Her influence, in fact, by degrees came to surpass that of Mme. de Pompadour. As she was not "born," she found it difficult at first to surround herself with ladies of rank, but she soon found friends and admirers of both sexes; she disposed of all the favors. She had completely captivated the old King, who, "at sixty-one years, was as much in love as ever." Mme. Du Barry was allowed to send her orders directly to the Treasury. The Abbé Terray, comptroller of the finances, tried in vain to balance the receipts and expenditures. "He attempted retrenchment, as if retrenchment were possible at Versailles. There were three millions and a half to provide for the prodigious household of the Count de Provence [who had just been married]; the household of the Count d'Artois threatened to be as large. The passion for hunting of King and Dauphin necessitated thousands of horses."

Louis XV. fell ill on the 29th of April, 1774, at Versailles, and was twice bled the same day. He had felt unwell for a week. Cröy gives an account of the King's malady which is almost as detailed and accurate as a doctor's bulletin could be. In a medical point of view it is really interesting, as it shows the development and progress of the smallpox, of the kind called confluent. It is interesting also as showing minutely the change of sentiment of the court during the malady. Cröy shows us "Mesdames, that is to say, the three daughters of the King, standing at the foot of his bed, . . . the King, in a military bed, in the middle of the chamber, seemingly tranquil, but with a red and swollen head. . . . The ministers, the Prince de Soubise were there. The Duke d'Aumont dealt with the doctors and did it well. . . . Madame Du Barry was encouraged only by her partisans, for she said: 'I displease the entire family; let me go.' Yet the habit of the King to see her made her feel that she was useful to him. She seemed to sacrifice herself by staying."

When the King himself found out that he had the smallpox (he would not believe it at

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first, having already had it once), he said to Madame Du Barry: "Now that I know my condition, I will not renew the scandal of Metz; if I had known what I now know, you would not have stayed here. I owe myself to God and to my people; you must retire." Madame Du Barry fainted; then withdrew. Up to that time the impulses of the court had been various. "According to the fears of the party, people rushed to pay their court to the lady, and everybody was in the air except myself, who had never visited her. In the evening they were quite triumphant, as the Archbishop could not enter and the fears of the King were dissipated." When the King dismissed his mistress, he sent for M. d'Aiguillon, and ordered him to see to all the details of her departure. The Duchess d'Aiguillon conducted her to her house at Rueil. Some time afterwards the King said to his valet, Laborde, "Go and fetch Madame Du Barry." Laborde answered: "Sire, she is gone." "Where is she gone?" "To Rueil, sire." "Ah, already!" The King prepared himself for the last sacrament. "It was a long time since he had made confession, the last time being for the affair of Madame de Mailly, in 1736."

It is curious to see how Cröy explains the calculations of the King with regard to his salvation:

"The King," he says, "wished not to render his own life too sober if he recovered, for it had become indispensable for him to have an apartment where he could go and talk freely, his family having become useless to him for that, on account of the life which he had led. In consequence, he thought that he could content himself with receiving the sacrament *in articulo*. He had his great bed arranged; he waited for the moment, and did not wish to embarrass himself for nothing. So it appeared that, whatever may have been said, he had all his senses, and it was conformably to this plan that he had had the lady removed, and said to himself, 'Let us act for the present.' He could not bring himself to make pledges."

These combinations and calculations, which Cröy sets forth with a certain candor, show us Louis XV. as a negotiator who is willing to treat and make promises only under the pressure of an immediate necessity. From his confessor, an humble priest who was patiently waiting, he could obtain absolution only by promising never to see Mme. Du Barry again; but he was willing to make this promise only if he felt certain that death would separate him from her. He was, with all that (or thought he was) a good Catholic; he said his prayers, he heard mass with much fervor. His end was not without dignity. After he had received the extreme unction, he spoke to the Cardinal, who said to those who were in the next room: "Gentlemen, the King charges me to tell you that he begs God's pardon for the offence he has given to him and for the scandal he has brought upon his people. If God gives him back health, he will occupy himself with doing penance, with upholding religion, and with doing good to his people." The King added: "I should like to have the strength to say this myself." This was on the ninth day of the malady. He died on the tenth day, with much courage and resignation (May 9, 1774). He was not regretted, except by his immediate entourage. Cröy, who had a real affection for him, says: "In general, I was not at all satisfied with the nation. As the weather was fine, there were many people out during these two days, in the park, and people walked as usual. All the inns were full, and nobody, outside of the apartment, seemed to be moved. It was no better in Paris. . . . A stranger would not have known that we had lost a King."

The new King was hardly twenty years old. He had three aunts, the unmarried daughters of Louis XV.; there were besides these princesses the Queen, Madame (the Countess de Provence), Madame d'Artois. This made, with two sisters, eight ladies with whom he had to live, all having their ladies in waiting —altogether, as Cröy remarks, about a hundred women, some of whom were very clever. "It was no small affair, at a time when nothing seemed great but the affairs of the Court." Cröy enters into many interesting details about Marie Antoinette's début as Queen. We cannot read all these details without emotion when we think of the tragical end of this unfortunate princess, "pretty as the day and full of graces." Cröy himself was fortunate enough not to see the troubled days of the French Revolution. He died on the 30th of March, 1784, in Paris, in his hôtel in the Rue du Regard. I have read few books or memoirs which have given me a more vivid account of that time of which Talleyrand used to say in his old age: "Those who did not live in France before the French Revolution do not know what pleasure it is to live."

Correspondence.

THE PRINTING BILL IN THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your article of the 18th inst. concerning the bill to improve the printing and binding methods of the public documents, with mingled feelings of satisfaction at your approval of the bill and dismay at your method of advocating it. My judgment and my experience convince me that perhaps the worst way to secure the enactment of a project of legislation is to begin by sweepingly antagonizing and censuring the enacting power. In this case I have also the conviction that such censure is unjust.

While the stubborn fact remains that the bill has not been passed, and has not even been reported to the Senate for its consideration, yet it is equally true that all of the Senators with whom I have talked or corresponded on the subject have recognized the importance and merit of the measure, and all of them (except Senator Hale) have assured me of their intention to vote for it if it came before the Senate. Senator Hale is chairman of the committee on printing, to which the bill was referred, and of course to him is due the fact that it has not been reported; yet even he assured me that he was not to be considered as opposed to the bill, but as deeming it of such importance that it ought to have more consideration than he had yet been able to give it.

Of course, from my point of view, and from that of librarians and scholars generally, the bill is of such importance that time ought to have been taken to consider it and report it and put it to vote, but I cannot assume that it has thus impressed Senator Hale. It seems to me more just to assume that he has passed it over because his time was occupied with measures which to him seemed of greater public importance, and I do not feel that I have a right to say that a difference of opinion on this subject implies any wrong-doing.

I am confident that when the document-reform bill comes before the Senate, it will pass by a vote practically unanimous, and that its operation will give such satisfaction that everybody will wonder why such a bill was not devised and enacted years ago. If passed in its original form, it will, for one thing, save in printing and binding double the total cost of carrying on my office, and this without at all reducing the number of books. In fact, the number will to all intents and purposes be greatly increased, because the demand will be reduced by cutting off the duplications which now arise from the practice of printing one book in many editions. I am equally confident that the bill will come before the Senate at a seasonable period in the next Congress, and, if it does so, and is received as I anticipate that it will be, I trust the *Nation* will improve the opportunity to recognize the open-mindedness of the Senate towards a measure which looks solely to the public good, and has in it no element of personal advantage for anybody.

F. A. Crandall,
Superintendent of Documents.

Washington, February 19, 1897.

[We did not mean to imply that our knowledge of senatorial opposition to Mr. Crandall's bill, and the absurd reasons for it, came from him, or were hinted at in his report. We shall cheerfully recognize the open-mindedness of the Senate when we see it. We shall also speak freely of the opposite quality whenever we see that.—Ed. Nation.]

SCARCITY OF MONEY AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your "Report on the Indianapolis Conference" in the *Nation* of February 11, you call attention to the following passage in the speech of Mr. William E. Dodge: "I found that there were great sections of the Western and Southern country where there was absolutely no money at all; where the most primitive forms of barter obtained. . . ." The *Nation* endorses this by saying, "That the condition described by Mr. Dodge exists in large districts of the South is undoubtedly true."

We down here have heard a good deal about these "great sections" of late years, but have never become much excited over the news. The assertions, coming invariably from the same sources, have located "the sections" in such a vague, treasure-island sort of way that we have to regard them as mere bits of poetical figure used for rhetorical emphasis or wadding, as one or the other might happen to be needed. "Great sections" is a good elastic term, and is handy for speech-making, but no speaker has been so accurate as to even name a State in which such a section can be found. Such a section in an agriculturally rich, or any other sort of rich, country is an impossibility, and such talk is absurd; it is the same old twaddle of the silverite, that a man can be rich in everything else, and yet be starving because the "per capita" is deficient. The poor people have no money, but that is because they are poor; they are not poor on account of the low "per capita." As long as corn, oats, cotton, hay, hogs, or manure are worth a fraction of a cent a hundred, these people can always get cash for any surplus they have.

We protest against such a slander as that there is any agricultural section in the South larger than a county poor-farm where none

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of the inhabitants earn more than they consume. Many of our people *are* poor, and much of the business *is* done by barter; but the very poor in sparsely settled countries have always bartered to some extent, because where there is only one store in ten miles they usually buy and sell with the same man; it is more convenient.

Up to 1893 the most prosperous inhabitants of our agricultural sections were planters who rented their land, in small sections, to negroes and poor whites, and set up what is known as a merchandising and advancing business. Here they advanced one hundred dollars' worth of hog meat, cottonseed, trace-chains, and calico at a good round profit to themselves, and, at the end of the year, took (in barter) one hundred and twenty-five dollars' worth of cotton and corn in *part* payment of the debt. They always liked to have a small balance against the barterer to carry over, to preclude the possibility of his moving away and trying his bad luck elsewhere. Since 1893 the merchandising and advancing gentlemen have been on the road as silver-tongued calamity howlers, and the poor whites and negro renters have worked on, lived cheaply because they could get no credit (found out for the first time, in fact, that they *could* live without it), and at the end of the year found themselves with more coon-skins' worth of cotton and corn than they ever had before. Some few of them, indeed, see a few dollars now and then.

On closer reading of your article, I am pleasantly disappointed to find that Mr. Dodge's source of information regarding our large desert sections is the same with which we here are already acquainted, and that his exploring tour extended no further South than Indianapolis.—Yours, etc.,

G. S. Brown.

Birmingham, Ala., February 13, 1897.

THE RETREAT OF THE MOSLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the interesting letter on North Africa in last week's *Nation* the writer makes the statement that the Mussulman population is "fast vanishing" from Bosnia. According to the official census taken in 1879, soon after the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the population numbered 1,212,172, of whom 448,613 were Mussulmans. In 1895 the total number of inhabitants was 1,568,092, of whom 548,818 were Mussulmans. The truth is, that the European Mohammedan peasant, when justly governed, is a law-abiding citizen who lives peaceably with his Christian neighbors, and is subject to the same natural laws of increase as they. While in Bosnia there is no evidence, to my knowledge, of a change in his faith, in southeastern Russia almost entire villages of Mohammedans have become Christians within a few years.

Jas. M. Hubbard.

Boston, February 16, 1897.

AN UNFINISHED WORK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to a recent statement in the London *Bookman*, quoted in the *Evening Post*, the Clarendon Press is contemplating the publication of the English classics in an *édition définitive*. This is good news to us all, and to no one more acceptable than to the present writer. But would it be too ungracious to remind the Clarendon, before embarking in this new and grand enterprise, that it would do well first to liquidate a small debt of honor of long standing? I refer to the still incomplete Bosworth-Toller 'Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.' Part I. appeared in 1882, Part II. in 1882, Part III. in 1887, the first section of Part IV. in 1892! There we still stick. Fifteen years, and nothing finished! We are unable to bind up the parts already printed. My private copy is going to pieces; so is the college library copy. This country, from Maine to California, is groaning under the nuisance. Every one, of course, knows the heinous defects of the Bosworth-Toller. But they are incurable by any amount of waiting. Meanwhile there must be nearly a thousand voices in America muttering, Give us our *book*, good or bad, that we may at least bind up and be at rest. Surely the Clarendon does not imagine that we are going to accept as a substitute Henry Sweet's two-dollar Students' Dictionary, just advertised "immediately." What need have we of a students' dictionary? Our undergraduates can make shift fairly well with certain special glossaries; our graduate students require something much more advanced than Henry Sweet is likely to offer. As a long-suffering scholar I advise the Clarendon Press not to forget the ancient motto: "*Noblesse oblige.*"

X.

February 22, 1897.

Notes.

Shortly to be issued by D. Appleton & Co. are a new edition of Professor Laughlin's 'History of Bimetallism in the United States'; 'Pioneers of Evolution,' from Thales to Huxley, by Edward Clodd; Marshal Oudinot's Memoirs; 'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis; and 'The Aurora Borealis,' by Alfred Angot.

Ginn & Co. announce for April 'Stories from English History,' by Alfred F. Blaisdell.

Macmillan Co. have in preparation selections from the first nine books of the Florentine chronicle of Giovanni Villani, translated for the use of students of Dante and others by Rose E. Selfe, edited by Philip H. Wicksteed.

The Bibliographisches Institut of Leipzig and Vienna has undertaken the publication of an illustrated history of German literature that will doubtless surpass the widely circulated works by König and Lexer. It is being prepared by two professors of German literature in Breslau, Dr. Friedrich Vogt, who does the work on the earlier periods, and Dr. Max Koch, who has charge of the more modern. The publishers promise that the illustrations shall not be too prominent, that only those of real scientific value will be admitted, and that these will be prepared in the very best possible manner. The work is appearing in *Lieferung* fashion, and will cost complete and bound 16 marks.

The subscription or "Outward Bound" edition of Rudyard Kipling's 'Writings in Prose and Verse,' just begun to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons, has all the merits we commonly do *not* associate with "subscription books." A very handsome and legible letterpress is printed on a specially made and water-marked paper; the binding is simple and elegant. Quite unique, apart from the portrait frontispiece, are the illustrations. The elder Kipling, whose facility with pen and pencil was so takingly shown in his 'Beast and Man in India,' has modelled designs in relief for this edition of his more famous son's stories and verse. They not only are in perfect keeping with the style of the book-making, but they are admirable in themselves, whether as characterization, symbolism, or pure decoration. We single out "The Daughter of the Regiment" in volume ii. and "Muhammad Din" in volume i. as gems in their way; and the elephant seal of the title page and cover should not be passed over. The first volume is 'Plain Tales from the Hills'; the second, 'Soldiers Three, and Military Tales,' shows the grouping of kindred subjects which has been attempted in this series. We need say no more except that the edition is fine enough to be definitive; but Mr. Kipling is alive and still productive, and has yet perhaps more than one uniform collection before him ere finis comes.

The care with which Robert Louis Stevenson's slightest works are being preserved after his death again appears in the publication, by the Bodley Head Press (John Lane), of a "fragment of his, written in 1878, on 'A Mountain Town in France.'" Stevenson treated the same subject, a little less broadly, perhaps, in the later 'Travels with a Donkey'; but this essay is none the less interesting, and is written without that elaborate archaism which distinguishes his later style. The pamphlet is limited to three hundred and fifty copies, and has five full-page illustrations of landscape from sketches by the author, which have only a personal interest.

Just a dozen years have elapsed since we welcomed the second edition of Canon Ellacombe's 'Plant-Lore and Garden-Craft of Shakspere,' and now we have a third (New York: Edward Arnold), shorn of the appendices, slightly retrenched in certain places, slightly enlarged with a notice of the daisy, but, above all, illustrated. Major Ricketts has supplied very skilful and decorative drawings of the plants enumerated, copies of old prints of gardens, views of Anne Hathaway's cottage, dainty vignettes of other buildings and scenes, and perhaps the floriated initial letters and headpieces. In short, this delightful book has been rendered still more pleasing, and is sure of a fresh lease of popularity.

Brentano's sends us the second edition of Judge Prowse's 'History of Newfoundland,' which was noticed in these columns, on its original appearance, in the summer of 1895. The work has been both condensed and extended; an additional chapter briefly bringing the history up to date with an account of the woful crash of 1894, and of the heroic struggle to retrieve the financial disaster and establish the colony's credit, together with the latest unsuccessful effort to devise a basis of confederation with the Dominion, and some show of the new hopes which the interior railway and the recent development of the coal and iron resources of the island are inspiring in patriots like our author. An appendix gives the proposed terms of union and the official reports on the mineral deposits. The work is thus freshened and improved, and, as its price is incredibly low, it is equally calculated for an immigration tract and a preparation for tourists, who, we cannot doubt, are going to multiply even if the immigrants other than miners do not. A dollar and a half, in fact, puts one in possession of more than 600 pages of learned and entertaining and authentic text, a host of capital photomechanical illustrations, and a map. The third edition, or we mistake Judge Prowse's striving for perfection, will include an index.

The work bearing the singular title, 'Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations,' was first pub-

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lished in 1882, and, having undergone a thorough overhauling and verification, is now brought out anew (Funk & Wagnalls Co.). It has been enlarged by nearly a third, and in many details exhibits a decided improvement. The index seems very minute, but we cannot think it worth while to have included in it the English versions accompanying the foreign quotations—at least indiscriminately, as has been done. *Mass* will help one to Henri IV.'s "Paris vaut bien une messe" (given unconsciously in an alternative form, "La couronne vaut bien une messe ou Paris vaut," etc.), and *candle* to "Le jeu ne vaut pas la chandelle"; but who could ever think of *bab blings* as a clue to Dante's "Vien retro a me, e lascia *dir* le genti"? It is, further, an odd conceit to refer to the bottom of each page of the index from quotations from Shakspere, Milton, Wordsworth, Byron, Tennyson, Lowell, Pope, and Longfellow. The considerably augmented list of authors now has references to all the respective citations. With all its apparatus, the work will chiefly serve, not those who wish to recall some saying, but those who seek an appropriate motto or sentiment or rhetorical embellishment. For this the classification answers well enough.

Readers who revel in the countless curiosities of the law will find much to amuse and something even of instruction in 'Legal Lore' (London: William Andrews & Co.), a collection of twenty-one essays by fifteen authors, devoted to as many topics in the legislation of England and Scotland, from Saxon times to the present. Law and custom reflect, as in a faithful mirror, the ideals of successive generations, and throw a search-light upon the social conditions of the past, so that even such popular disquisitions as these have their value to the student as well as to the general public. Of course in such a miscellaneous group as the present the component parts vary greatly in interest; some are decidedly amateurish, and others are scarce more than agglomerations of anecdotes, while there are a few, like that of Mr. Neilson on "Post-mortem Trials," deserving of permanent preservation. A wider outlook would have preserved the volume from the reproach of insularity, but this defect has its counterpoise in the fact that British conservatism has preserved the flavor of mediævalism to an extent not to be found in lands exposed to the revolutionary influence of codes founded on the imperial jurisprudence. The island, therefore, affords an unrivalled field for the legal antiquarian who delights in tracing survivals, and in seeing how forms may be piously preserved while substance is modified to meet the requirements of changing environment.

'The Principles of the Transformer,' by Frederick Bedell (Macmillan Co.), is an extended treatise upon the alternating current transformer in which the treatment would leave an uninformed reader somewhat doubtful whether a transformer belongs in the realm of mathematical hypotheses or of useful machines. The book will doubtless be of interest to teachers and students of mathematics and mathematical physics, but it offers little of attractiveness or profit to the designer of actual transformers or to students of engineering. In this respect the book presents a marked contrast to a little volume on Transformers by Gisbert Kapp which has been lately issued by the same publishers.

'What is Electricity?' by Prof. John Trowbridge (D. Appleton & Co.), is an attempt to explain in a popular manner the most approved scientific hypotheses in regard to the nature of electricity. We have reason to expect real success in any effort undertaken seriously by one of Prof. Trowbridge's reputation, and he has as nearly succeeded as the chaotic condition of scientific knowledge will permit. A complete popular explanation of the nature of electricity would tax the powers of a Tyndall, since the first requirement is to overset entirely several cherished popular conceptions before it is possible to make clear the interdependence of electricity, magnetism, light, and heat, and their common dependence upon a hypothetical and all-pervading ether. Were this huge undertaking thoroughly performed, even then the result might have doubtful utility, since our most advanced ideas upon the nature of electricity, light, and the ether are little more than mere speculations or hypotheses. The true scientist is ready at any time to accept a reasonable hypothesis which seems to fit his knowledge, and to use the theory as a guide in his search for additional facts; but upon any shifting of his bearings which discoveries may bring about he must be ready to throw over the old and look for new theories. The popular mind needs more tangible and enduring foundations for its views, so it is hardly probable that any popular work upon electricity, light, and the ether can truly attain its object until we have more settled facts relating to these important phenomena. Prof. Trowbridge's book will be interesting to students of science and to many others, even if it is not popular in the full meaning of the term.

The second volume of Mr. Foster's Monthly Bulletin of the Providence Public Library, for 1896, is before us, testifying to his assiduity as a bibliographical purveyor in the domain of current history. The first number contains an alphabetical list of the reference lists published in the accessible bulletins of other libraries since October 1, 1895, and renews the Providence Library's own series with No. 26, "Venezuela and its Boundaries." The closing number brings us No. 38, "William Morris," and a general index. Such lists, and this is notable of its kind, serve as a sort of Annual Register as well as guide to reading. Mr. Foster's entries are freely annotated for intelligent selection.

The Germans are far from ready to adopt such drastic methods of modernizing secondary education as the Norwegians have recently initiated by dropping the Greek absolutely, and substantially the Latin also, from the gymnasium course. Dr. Alex. Wernicke's 'Kultur und Schule: Präliminarien zu einem Schulfrieden' (Osterwieck: A. W. Zickfeldt) belongs to those numerous publications, aiming at a reconciliation of the old and the new; which almost every month brings forth. We call attention to this particular treatise as presenting a well-studied plan of satisfying the just and irresistible demands of modern life without ruthlessly disregarding the historical development of the higher culture in Germany.

A more radical project of reform is advocated by Harold Arjuna in 'Klassisch oder Volksthümlich? Auch ein Beitrag zur Lösung der Schulfrage' (Leipzig: Gustav Fock). This writer, who seems to disguise his real name and has had his pamphlet printed at Brussels, has taken for his motto Ulrich von Hutten's *Ich hab's gewagt*. To him the gymnasium appears like the "leaning tower" whose base is deranged. It must become Germanic or perish: *Tertium non datur*. He is well informed and actuated by humane and patriotic motives, and writes from the fulness of the heart; but the constructive part of his plan is decidedly fanciful.

At a recent meeting, in Chicago, of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, a resolution was passed looking toward the checking of the tendency to intrust freshmen classes in the colleges and universities to young and inexperienced teachers. This brings to mind a passage in Dr. Adolph Wagner's *Rectoratsrede* on the Development of the University of Berlin (Berlin: Julius Becker), in which the disproportionate growth of the docent system in that institution, and in some other German universities, is exhibited. The University of Berlin started on its career with a faculty of forty-six, of whom fourteen were docents. In 1830-31 the proportion of the whole number of instructors to that of docents was 121:32; in 1870 it was 168:61—*i. e.*, between 1830 and 1870 the number of docents had doubled, while the entire corps of instructors had increased by only one-third. In 1896 the proportion is 345:167—in other words, nearly one-half of all the teachers are unsalaried docents. In the eighty-five years since the foundation of the university, it thus appears, the whole faculty had grown to between seven and eight times its original size, while the number of docents had increased twelve-fold. Vienna had in the same year (1896) nineteen more docents than Berlin, in a faculty equal, in the aggregate, to that of the latter university.

M. Alfred Fouillée, writing, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 15, on youthful criminals and the influence of the school and the press, proves conclusively, at least for France, the inefficiency of the modern public school as a remedial agency against crime. The writer does not hold the State schools directly responsible for the alarming increase of vice and crime among the young; but the predominance of intellectual over moral training, and the superficial character of the instruction in the public schools, he considers pernicious. 'Anti-religious intolerance, which is "as fatal for a nation as religious intolerance," also exerts an unfortunate influence; moral scepticism among the young is usually the result of religious scepticism. But even under the most favorable conditions the teacher can never take the place of the family. Alcoholism, among the parents, and a licentious press are terrible curses, and these two causes of juvenile depravity call urgently for speedy and effective legislative action.

—The seventeenth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey, for the fiscal year 1895 '96, has been lately distributed in advance of the geological essays to accompany the volume in which the report formally appears. Director Wolcott has thus a second time succeeded in issuing with commendable promptness his statement of work accomplished and in hand, from which those interested in the progress of this great national undertaking may almost accompany its progress. An item of popular interest concerns the report in preparation by Mr. Gilbert on the history of Niagara Falls, in which will be presented full evidence of a former northerly discharge of the waters of Lakes Michigan and Huron direct into Lake Ontario. The volume of Niagara River has therefore undergone great variation; the value of the retreat of the falls as a geological chronometer must be set rather low because of the variable rate of their recession. Another popular item is found in a brief mention of discoveries by Mr. Leverett regarding

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the post-glacial origin of the Ohio River. Its upper waters, the Allegheny and Monongahela, formerly discharged into the basin of Lake Erie, as has been known for some time. Now it is discovered that the Kanawha River of West Virginia, bearing drainage even from the mountains of North Carolina, also formerly ran northward across the State of Ohio, following a line partly coincident with the south-flowing Scioto of to-day. The diversion of all these rivers to their present discharge by the Ohio is ascribed to the obstruction of their northward drainage by an ice-sheet of the glacial period; and a good part of the great water-way which has exercised so strong an influence on our history must consequently be considered as a cross-country patchwork of many rivers formerly independent. Great has been our advantage from the change, for it has allowed the settlement of the lower Ohio valley to be accomplished with the grain of one large river, instead of up hill and down dale, across the grain of many smaller rivers. During the year twelve geologic folios, Nos. 15 to 26, were published under the editorship of Mr. Willis, their price being generally twenty-five cents. The public is evidently unaware of the high value, great beauty, and low price of these superb publications. A list of the folios and their prices may be had on application; every student of our country's resources should have them in his library.

—The third volume of Mr. Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) appears on the stroke of the clock, bearing signs of unremitting diligence. The action still centres in Acadia, whence we have already seen that the missionaries were expelled by the Virginians. On his return to France, Father Biard hastened to send a report of the St. Sauveur colony and its untimely end to Acquaviva, then General of the Order. He dated this Latin letter at Amiens, May 26, 1617. Two years later, and evidently after mature deliberation, he issued in French a formal "Relation de la Nouvelle France," designed with much skill to refute some specific attacks on the Jesuits of Port Royal. These are the pieces now presented in 285 pages of text and translation. How engaging is good Father Biard when he endeavors to put his anonymous adversary, perhaps Lescarbot, in the wrong and at the same moment to edify his readers by a prospect of ungleaned harvest fields! The poems of Ossian are not more fervid than the prose periods of the returned missionary. Among the polemical matters touched upon in Biard's Relation, the quarrel between the fathers and Biencourt is most prominent. According to our author, Simon Imbert poisoned Biencourt's mind by convincing him that the Marquise de Guercheville had sent the Jesuits over "de l'expulser hors de ses amples Seigneuries de Canada." It is much to Biard's credit that he keeps his temper and ascribes the root of the trouble to the devil. The Indians fill a large space in the narrative, but the Siroquois and Abenakis were tame creatures in comparison with the children of the Five Nations. We occasionally get a glimpse of French customs in these descriptions of Indian life. For instance: "Ils usent aussi du petun, et en boivent la fumée, de la façon commune en France." We are pleased to observe that the headline of the right-hand page has been changed from "The Jesuit Relations" to "Biard to the General," "Biard's Relation, 1616."

—Hippolyte Lencou's 'Le Théâtre Nouveau' (Paris: Savine) purports to be an inquiry into the influences at work on the contemporary dramatic movement in France. It has been inspired by the success which marked Huret's book on the literary movement, some years ago, but it is not likely to attract as much attention, although M. Eugène Fournière, who furnishes the preface to this new "enquête," is convinced of the contrary. Lavedan, Donnay, Curel, Maeterlinck, Jullien, Ancey, and Becque are the most important of the writers interviewed. Each has his own ideas of what the stage needs, and these ideas are in some cases absolutely antagonistic. Curiously enough, several of the authors mentioned meet on common ground, and, while seemingly hostile to all that has been done hitherto, hark back to Racine, in particular, as the great model. They have not much to say in favor of Dumas *fils*—rather they attack his drama; but they call with fair unanimity for the drama of "ideas" and the abolition of conventionality on the stage. The creation of characters, naturalness, diminution of episodes—these are some of the points on which there appears to be a substantial consensus of opinion among them. Rodenbach and Maeterlinck, it is true, are in favor of what M. Lencou calls "le théâtre muet," which is simply pantomime. According to M. Lencou, all the writers he has interviewed are "masters," and have produced masterpieces. It would be more correct to say that several of them have met with a fair measure of success, and may possibly produce a lasting work before they end their career. There is actually no dramatist of the first rank in France at the present moment. Dumas may not retain the high rank he occupies at this time, but there is surely not one among the men in M. Lencou's list who can be expected to displace him.

—The opinion of Sarcey may be considered biassed by prejudice, so far as the works of the younger school are concerned, though we should not, for our part, subscribe to such a judgment; but that of Lemaître is much the same as his, and Doumic, himself one of the "Jeunes," is not carried away by enthusiastic admiration when he discusses their works. In his latest book, 'Essais sur le Théâtre Contemporain' (Paris: Perrin), he examines the plays of four of the authors whom Lencou has interviewed; namely, Lavedan, Donnay, Curel, and Rodenbach. He looks upon them as men of talent and promise, but his deliberate judgment on their most recent productions is by no means favorable. They do not succeed in seizing on the real point of interest; they start out to do one thing and end by doing another, without quite understanding how they have managed, or mismanaged, it. The success of a play with an audience thoroughly in touch with the life depicted in it is not a sure gauge of permanent success, and this is the mistake which M. Lencou repeatedly makes. Apart from the studies referred to, M. Doumic's book contains an instructive chapter on Dumas's drama and two of his own Odéon lectures, the one on Pierre de Larivey, the other on Picard.

—In a vehement pamphlet (Paris: P. V. Stock) M. Bernard Lazare again takes up the cause of the unfortunate Capt. Dreyfus. A previous edition called forth a reply from the *Eclair* of Paris, which M. Bernard-Lazare considers inspired and now endeavors to refute. Without the record of the court-martial before us, it would be impossible to pass finally upon the merits of the case; but the Government's story, as told by its organ, is a sorry one. According to that authority, Dreyfus was a bad character; a busybody among the offices of the War Department; a conspirator whom all disliked and suspected, and who carried guilt in his face. The French secret service had for some time prior to 1894 been bribing the concierge of the German embassy at Paris to secure its office-sweepings for them, among which they one day found a torn wrapper, purporting to have contained documents relating to the arming and disposition of French troops, a list of which was endorsed in French on its back. A cipher letter, previously filched, had spoken of some "animal de Dreyfus"; and because of this allusion and a supposed similarity in his handwriting to that on the wrapper, Capt. Dreyfus was charged with treason, court-martialled, degraded, and exiled for life to Cayenne. As appears from the *Eclair*, the trial was principally a dispute among experts in handwriting, proved nothing positive, and was finally decided by the secret transmission among the judges of a letter whose contents are still undivulged—an expedient hitherto unheard of, except in cases like that Scotch political trial of the last century, described by Stevenson, where a similar mysterious "paper was handed round (like a curiosity) in court; passed through the jury-box, where it did its work; and disappeared again (as though by accident) before it reached the counsel for the prisoner." That trial ended in murder.

—M. Bernard-Lazare contends, on the other hand, that Dreyfus was an exemplary character; a married man, rich beyond temptation. He was no busybody; none of his acts were suspicious. The letter stolen from the German embassy alluded to no Dreyfus at all, but to some one designated as "D." Moreover, another man whose name began with D had been suspected before Dreyfus. The incriminating wrapper is not in Dreyfus's writing; Dreyfus could not have procured the documents it purported to contain; it is very doubtful if any such documents ever were furnished the Germans by any one. As to the details of Dreyfus's arrest, trial, and punishment, the axiom of the French criminal law that the accused is presumed guilty until he is proved innocent, and its procedure, which makes him a witness against himself, are sufficient to prejudice an Anglo-Saxon against any French trial, no matter how certain the guilt of the accused. In the present case, however, the War Office's very evident zeal to convict seems to have been quickened by popular fury against a supposed traitor who had the misfortune to be a German-speaking Alsatian and a Jew.

—Two manuals for the study of Modern Greek have lately appeared, which fill a gap in our educational apparatus, and which are designed for somewhat different classes of students. Mr. Rizo-Rangabé's Method (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is a concise volume of about 200 pages, with vocabularies and exercises well chosen and well arranged, which reveal the experience of the practical teacher. It has the merit of presenting, in addition to the general principles of the language, the chief features of the "vulgar" usage and speech, if those fresh dialectic or vernacular forms and constructions can fairly be called vulgar which lend vividness and charm to the poetry of Solomos and the folk ballads, and are still, fortunately, retained in familiar conversation even among the educated. These flowers of a new spring, legitimately growing from the ancient soil—this young blood—will inevitably be retained, by the natural process of development, to decorate and invigorate the somewhat color-

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less and artificial literary language which the modern purists are developing too exclusively and mechanically upon an antique mould. It is a whimsical fact that some learned Greeks are rather ashamed of having "lived and loved" since the days of Xenophon. But murder will out, and the young Greek blood cannot be disguised or concealed. It is from this homely popular strain that the rejuvenescence will inevitably come, as it has in all the great European literatures.

—Dr. Stedman's 'Greek Mastery' (Harpers) is a more bulky work, fitted for private study, but not so well adapted for purposes of reference. The vocabulary and practice are supplied chiefly by progressive reading-lessons, translated in parallel columns. The rules for pronunciation are specially minute and accurate. Dr. Stedman is an enthusiast for the modern tongue; he thinks it might be agreed upon for the universal language; and he calls his manual a "Short Road to Ancient Greek," which he believes ought to be approached from the modern side, just as Englishmen go back to Chaucer from English of the nineteenth century. We grant him that the method he advises is an excellent one for any person who has had the accidental privilege to be born in Greece, and has therefore acquired the modern tongue without expense of time or money. Such a one has certainly a long start towards classic Greek, as compared with an Englishman or a Frenchman. But for people in general the shortest cut to the treasures of the ancient literature is evidently through the ancient language. This need not be a long process, though the teachers often talk as if it must be. We know a boy who in a single year was thoroughly prepared in the Greek requirements for admission to Harvard. For the foreigner, the modern literature and language must remain a tit-bit—a delightful after-course to the ancient literature; it is, above all, a key to the heart of a living people—to their thoughts and ways. Hence, the bachelor of arts, masculine or feminine, of our American colleges who has been so unworldly wise as to include Greek in his studies, will find Dr. Stedman's manual, or Mr. Rizo Rangabé's, a useful book to put in his trunk when he purposes a visit to Athens on his way to Cairo or Constantinople.

THE STORY OF BOHEMIA.

The Story of Bohemia, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of National Independence in 1620. With a short summary of later events. By C. Edmund Maurice. [Story of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

It has been the lot of the Slavic peoples to pass through long periods of foreign domination. Russia had to bow before the Tartar khans; Bulgaria and Servia were swallowed up in the flood of Ottoman conquest; the yoke of Muscovite and German has been fastened upon the Poles; the Croats have writhed under that of the Magyars; the national life of Bohemia was extinguished in the fires kindled by the Reformation. But Slavic blood is tenacious of its existence; and a Slav subdued is not a Slav suppressed. Serb and Bulgarian have emerged in unimpaired vigor, after a thraldom of centuries, from the receding tide of Turkish rule; the Pole clings desperately to the dream of a resuscitated fatherland; the Croat refuses to surrender his nationality to the Magyar; and the Czech of Bohemia is struggling to emancipate himself from the sway of the Teuton.

In the eighteenth century the world was oblivious of the presence of the Czech. In the nineteenth century he makes himself loudly heard in the effort to reassert his autonomous existence. The Czechs of Bohemia have before them to-day the spectacle of their neighbors, the Magyars, celebrating the one-thousandth anniversary of the establishment of their Danubian realm, the spectacle of six or seven million Turanians lording it over nearly ten millions of Slavs, Rumans, and Germans. The Slavs of Bohemia and Moravia are not so very much inferior in numbers to the Magyars of Hungary, and outnumber the German population within the bounds of these provinces. They have their tradition of national greatness, the memory of the rôle they played in history, and they cannot conceive why they should not be entitled to the same position of autonomy in the realm of the Hapsburgs that the Hungarians enjoy. The accomplished fact of a dual Austro-Magyar monarchy, a strange structure, indeed, but one which has been reared upon a stable foundation reaching deep into the past, and whose continuance is considered to be essential to the preservation of the equilibrium of Europe, does not appeal to the mind of the Czech. He refuses to recognize (and naturally enough from the standpoint of the militant Slav) the obstacles in the way of a triple federal system, a political partnership of German, Magyar, and Czech, to which ere long the Poles of Galicia would claim admittance. Heedless of the entanglements of the future, of the prospect of being swallowed up by Russia, or of being annexed to Germany in the event of a disrupted Austria, he is bent upon restoring the realm of St. Wenceslas and regaining supreme command of the region in which he considers the German only an intruder.

The great migration of nations which swept away the Roman Empire and revolutionized the ethnographic features of the European continent brought the Bohemians, about fourteen centuries ago, within their present abode. The flood which had been let loose from the seat of the old Slavic nation in what is now western Russia kept rolling westward until it reached the lowlands of the Elbe. The returning tide of German conquest, ushered in by the victories of Charlemagne, pressed back the boundaries of Slavdom, the Germans poured into the regions once occupied by their kinsfolk, and at last the land of the Czechs was left as a Slavic peninsula projecting into Teutony. Even here the complexion of the population was changed by the continued influx of German settlers (whose advent was welcomed by reason of their industry, technical attainments, and learning), and Bohemia and the adjoining region were destined to become and to remain a disputed ground between German and Slav. The beginning of the fourteenth century witnessed the extinction of the ancient Czech dynasty of Premysl, under which for a brief time, in the reign of Ottocar II., Bohemia was the most powerful member of the vast assemblage of states that made up the Holy Roman Empire. The establishment of a German dynasty, that of Luxemburg, the elevation of Charles of Luxemburg to the imperial throne, and the foundation by this sovereign of the University of Prague (the first university within the bounds of old Germany), worked powerfully in favor of Germanization; but in the Hussite convulsions of the following century the Czechs gave proof of a new national vigor. Nevertheless, though their indomitable spirit asserted itself on the battlefield in a manner to startle the world, it did not prove equal to the task of building up a powerful and permanent national Slavic monarchy. Never-ceasing internal dissensions and a labyrinthine complexity of political constitution hindered such a consummation. The realm of St. Wenceslas at the close of the Middle Ages—this kingdom of Bohemia, with its dependencies of Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, with its inextricable maze of jurisdictions of every sort—was a reflex of the complex fabric of the German Empire itself. The people came to regard it as a natural thing to be ruled by princes belonging to foreign dynasties. When, after an interval of a century and a half, the Czechs once more tasted the satisfaction of having a national king in the person of the able and crafty George Podiebrad (1458–'71), the establishment of a hereditary national dynasty was prevented by the ambitious designs of Hungary's great monarch, Matthias Corvinus, and Bohemia now leaned on the power of the Polish Jagellons.

After the death of Matthias Corvinus, Hungary and Bohemia were for a time united under Jagellon kings. Then came the catastrophe of Mohács, the collapse of the Hungarian realm at the hands of Solyman the Magnificent. The Bohemians had to choose a king. They accepted Ferdinand of Hapsburg, a step portentous for the future of the Czech nationality. *Hinc prima mali labes.* The land of Huss welcomed the Reformation, and the power of Hapsburg crushed it out and with it the national existence. Nowhere did the Counter-Reformation do its work more thoroughly than in Bohemia. The Protestant uprising under Count Thurn, which initiated the Thirty Years' War and well-nigh overturned the Austrian throne, had as a consequence the conversion of Bohemia into a conquered province of the Hapsburgs and an absolute restoration to Catholicism. The Peace of Westphalia sealed the fate of Bohemia, and ever since that time the nation which a hundred years before Luther defied the power of the Church, and so heroically beat back the crusading chivalry of Germany, has been reposing quietly in the arms of Rome. And now, when the Czech thinks of the part he once played in history, he is beset by conflicting emotions. He cannot help reflecting how the glorious deeds of his race are bound up with those struggles against the Church to which he is so fondly wedded. Yet none the less strongly does his love of nationality assert itself.

"In that struggle between Teuton and Slav," observes Mr. Maurice in the work before us, "the one thing which, from the earliest to the latest times, has been the most prized treasure, and the subject of the fiercest championship of the Bohemian, is his language. . . . Hus is honored, even by Roman Catholic Bohemians, as the assertor and developer of their language."

The vigorous reawakening of national feeling among the Czechs in the latter years of the eighteenth century, and in the early part of the nineteenth, was mainly the work of the scholar and the writer. The people realized that they possessed a language for which it was worth while struggling, a tongue "one of the most varied and expressive of modern Europe." They realized as they had never done before their position as part of the great Slavic race, and they gave an emphatic utterance to this sentiment in 1848, when a Slavic congress was convened at Prague and the propaganda of Panslavism took tangible

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shape. Unfortunately for the Czech, the great Slavic power which threatens the disruption of Austria and on which he might lean, is separated from him by the barrier of divergent religious belief.

The struggle for autonomy on the part of Bohemia constitutes at the present day the greatest of the internal perils which beset the Austrian ship of state. That the Germans of Cisleithania will yield, cannot be expected. They cannot for a moment contemplate the idea of the reconversion of Bohemia and Moravia into a Slavic kingdom and the handing over of millions of their people to the rule of a foreign race. While the Czechs are perhaps as far as ever from achieving their main object, the attainment of which would entail a fresh danger to the peace of Europe, their untiring agitation has wrought a great change in the status of their nationality. They can now point with pride to their national university at Prague, instituted by the Government of Cisleithania by the side of the old university, and rivalling in attendance the universities of Oxford and Leipzig.

We regret that the author whom we are reviewing should have confined himself within the limits indicated on the title-page. For an account of the stirring events of 1848 Mr. Maurice refers the reader to his 'Revolutions of 1848 and 1849,' which was reviewed at length in these columns. That work is inspired by an ardent sympathy with the peoples whose efforts to regain their autonomy formed part of that extraordinary upheaval. The volume before us is not a "story," but serious history. Mr. Maurice has not enrolled himself among the writers whose plan, as set forth in the prospectus of the "Story of the Nations," is to "enter into the real life of the peoples, and to bring them before the reader as they actually lived, labored, and struggled, —as they studied and wrote, and as they amused themselves." He is as far removed from this class of historians as possible. He deals only with events, and is entirely engrossed with the recital of the religious and political revolutions of a people whose tragic career has excited his sympathies, and which has been "strangely misunderstood by the average Englishman." The most appropriate place for the volume would be on the shelf by the side of Coxe's 'History of the House of Austria.'

Mr. Maurice has evidently devoted much study and labor to his task (much of his research having been done in the towns of Bohemia and Moravia), and he deals with his subject with such painstaking minuteness that his work becomes a chronicle through which only the student who is already somewhat of an historian will wade with entire satisfaction. Always intent on his main theme, the author refuses to drop the thread of his narrative in order to enable the reader to survey the field before him. Indeed, we have seldom seen an historical production in which the student is allowed to proceed so utterly without bearings. Mr. Maurice has apparently forgotten that an historical picture like the one he has so carefully drawn needs a framing to be properly appreciated. The kingdom of St. Wenceslas floats before our vision in a shoreless sea. The Holy Roman Empire, Austria, Poland, Hungary, Luxemburg, loom up only as phantoms on a vague horizon. The recital of the woes and throes of Bohemia can hardly be pronounced a grateful theme for the historian. There is little to fasten our gaze till we reach the epoch of the Luxemburg kings, and the brief periods of national greatness, if such they may be called, had each their sequel of depression and downfall. The part which Bohemia played in initiating the Thirty Years' War of course possesses most dramatic interest for the reader.

A temperate tone pervades this history. Mr. Maurice is not led to indulge in undue praise of the nationality whose cause he champions, or in denunciation of the race and rulers which it has had to serve. His narrative is plain and unadorned, the style unaffected and often forcible. He does not always show himself perfectly familiar with the facts of history when he has to tread beyond his immediate *terrain*. Thus, we are told on page 394 that many of the Bohemian Brotherhood "accepted the invitation of the Elector of Brandenburg to settle in his newly conquered province of Prussia." Now Prussia was not a "province," but a separate state, a duchy. It had not been "conquered" by the Elector of Brandenburg, nor was it under the sway of the Electors of Brandenburg at the time referred to; its ruler being a prince of the margraval line of Brandenburg-Ansbach, who had converted the realm of the Teutonic Knights, of which order he was grand-master, into a secular duchy. The Schmalkaldic League was not formed in 1542, as stated on page 388, but in 1530.

Mr. Maurice finds pleasure in making his readers acquainted with the names of Bohemian and Moravian places in their Slavic form, in spite of the fact that they generally "seem so unpronounceable." In many cases he couples the German and Bohemian forms, placing one in parenthesis. We think he has indulged his own predilection unwarrantably far (witness on page 395 *Loket*, in which who will recognize *Elbogen?*), and he merits the charge of inconsistency of which he expresses a fear in his preface. Thus, while on page 468 we find *Budweis* (*Budejóvice*) and *Pilsen* (*Plzen*), on page 470 the former of these towns is mentioned under its Czech and the latter under its German form. The Slavic names are printed throughout with their diacritical marks, to the great exhilaration of the Anglo-Saxon reader. It is a pity that the same attention has not everywhere been lavished upon names in strange tongues. Stephen Bocskay, the leader in the Hungarian rising of 1604, figures everywhere under the appellation of Bocksay. The introduction of such forms as Passauer (inhabitant of Passau) may be praiseworthy, but we cannot see why Mr. Maurice prefers to employ the same ending for the plural as for the singular. A strange slip or misprint occurs on page 374, where we read of the danger of Ferdinand's "election" to the throne of Spain.

The map of Bohemia and Moravia inserted at the back of the volume is defective in not giving the names of the important mountain ranges which enclose these regions. The name Lausitz (Lusatia) might advantageously have been introduced on this map. Of the numerous half-tone illustrations in this otherwise handsomely printed book, we can only say that most of them are beneath criticism.

GREEK FUNEREAL MONUMENTS.

Sculptured Tombs of Hellas. By Percy Gardner, Litt.D., Lincoln and Merton Professor of Classical Archæology and Art in the University of Oxford. With thirty plates and eighty-seven engravings in the text. Macmillan. 1897.

THIS beautiful book is welcome to all who believe in classical archæology as a study which may bring into prominence the humanitarian side of classical studies. It is equally serviceable for the general reader and for the scholar, since it deals competently with the whole subject in hand, without being voluminous. Of its 259 pages, nearly fifty are occupied by the engravings in the text, which are a wonderfully complete supplement to the thirty well-executed and selected full-page plates. Prof. Gardner has successfully studied a brevity which sacrifices nothing essential because it suppresses all labored descriptions of monuments, and depends upon adequate representations of the monuments themselves. In harmony with this truly artistic as well as time-saving plan is the practice adhered to of using rhymed metrical translations where the literary form of cited texts invites and permits such treatment. These translations are often very happy, although the advisability of using the ballad metre for extracts from Homer is perhaps open to question. Throughout the book our author has most aptly availed himself of the Palatine Anthology where excerpts from it show themselves applicable to this or that figured monument. This is often done with the most original effect, and the same thing is noticeable in the use made of actually inscribed epitaphs. By these appeals to poetry a literary flavor, never quite foreign to any class of Greek monuments, is made to enhance our appreciation of Greek sculptured tombs.

One consideration makes the subject of Greek funeral monuments of especial moment, and that is the importance of the fourth century B. C. in this particular branch of art. During the earlier, the great period of Athenian power, when the greatest splendor and perfection were achieved in larger concerns, the monuments of the dead were comparatively neglected. For this the reasons were no doubt many, and the parallel fact is worth noting that during the period of the great dramatists and historians such minor and intimately personal forms of literature as the epigram almost disappear. Therefore it is important to have before us a full treatment of that minor and more intimate aspect of Greek art which finds its fullest scope during a period which we are tempted to pass over with neglect. Certainly after the battle of Aegospotami, as our author says, "the conditions of sculpture at Athens underwent a great change," and "Art worked mainly in the service of individuals." This was a time when the sepulchral monuments at Athens became almost sumptuous, and such sculptors as Praxiteles, such painters as Nicias, undertook tombs. Two well-known sepulchral reliefs, that of Dexileos (Plate xii.) in the Ceramicus, and one found in the Ilissus (Plate xv.), are connected with the school of Scopas if not with Scopas himself. Indeed, Prof. Gardner, though decorously sceptical, does not visit with downright scorn the suggestion that the stele of Phænarete may be in commemoration of the mother of Socrates, the handiwork either of Socrates or of his father Sophroniscus.

In the days of Phidias, sculptors of renown had higher work to do, and thus there is perhaps only one funeral monument unmistakably suggestive of the style of Phidias—the wonderful "figure of a young man clad in a mantle, who holds in his left hand a bird, and extends the right without obvious purpose" (Plate xiv.). With this, however, can be roughly classed that "noble figure of an athletic ephebus" (Plate xiii.) found at Thespiæ, and

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inscribed in Roman times with the name of Agathocles. Also here may be placed the stele of Tynnias, the son of Tynnon (Plate x.). Of this simple seated figure Prof. Gardner truly says: "The work is not very careful, yet it would not be easy to find in art a figure of greater grace and dignity. This mere mortal would sit undisgraced among the seated gods of the frieze of the Parthenon. He might almost stand for Zeus, the father of gods and men, instead of for the father of ordinary Athenian girls and boys." Indeed, just here we may discern the surviving religious hue of earlier sepulchral art, where it is so often quite impossible to say how far the sculptured representation stands for the man commemorated, and how far it shadows forth the netherworld divinity with whom death has united the departed soul. Of such earlier sculptured monuments our book contains not a few, and the account of these is especially interesting since it leads back to the general introductory chapter—based largely on Rohde's well-known book—dealing with beliefs as to a future life.

One of the fascinating mysteries still unsolved in Greek sculptured tombs and funeral representations of all kinds is the persistent conspicuousness of representations of the horse. A study of the plates and figures in those chapters of the present work (vi. and vii.) which deal with Spartan monuments and with "heroizing reliefs," reveals a constant tendency to introduce a representation of the horse. This is done so oddly as to suggest that the presence of this animal had the virtue of some sort of a charm or was in some way consecrated by ritual. Take, for instance, the stele from Chrysapha (fig. 30), on which a seated man holds a wine-cup in his extended right hand. Below the cup, leaping up towards his lap, is his dog. Nothing could be more normal or natural. But above the wine-cup, standing in mid-air, is a very diminutive horse. Nothing could be more formal or enigmatical. Dr. Furtwängler is quoted as giving a symbolical reference to both animals: the horse belongs to Hades, the dog to Hecate, both mythologically and ritually connected with the dead. Prof. Gardner has advocated the bolder view "that these animals sculptured on the stone bear the same relation to the mortal horse and dog which had belonged to the hero that the portrait bears to himself." This view seems satisfactory so far as the representation of the dog is concerned. Indeed, the representation of a favorite dog in various natural attitudes is one of the most charming of the commonplaces of Greek sculptured tombs. But the case of the horse is different. An uncanny prominence is given to him, either by "skying" him and making him disproportionately small, as in this stele from Chrysapha, or by bringing him full-sized into the centre of the sculptured scene, where he crowds the human figures into less conspicuous positions and seems to take possession of the altar pictured at the centre, as in a relief from Thebes now at Berlin (fig. 36 in the present book), or on two so-called "Marathonian" funeral vases in the Louvre, and on various monuments figured in Prof. Gardner's plates. Finally, still among heroizing reliefs, we have (fig. 39) the curious representation of a hero approached by a line of worshippers, while just in front of and above him appears the head of a horse thrust through a small window, as if to assert his lively interest in the ceremonial of hero-worship represented.

These and other striking details characterizing the horse as figured on funereal monuments have led Dr. Furtwängler and others to insist upon the connection between the horse and Hades. But, as Prof. Gardner points out, there is no really sufficient ground assigned for this connection. If, however, the late Mr. McLennan had lived to become cognizant of this archæological difficulty, there is no question that he would have seen in the mysterious prominence of the horse on many sculptured tombs and funereal representations an echo of primeval totem-worship. For, when he endeavored to indicate Greek records of the survival of totem clans, he pointed among other things to the astounding number of names and epithets of Homeric heroes which rung the changes upon the word ἵππος. Certainly the notion of a horse-totem is suggested not only by Homer, but also by many facts and fancies given by Pindar. If this totem-worship was merged into those forms of ancestor-worship which ultimately grouped themselves around the cult of netherworld Hades, then the mysterious prominence of the horse on Greek sculptured tombs would be easier to understand. Nor would this view at all exclude Prof. Gardner's simpler explanation "that a chief accustomed all his life to riding would scarcely be supposed to lack a horse in the field of Hades." This would not be the first time that a matter-of-fact explanation has accounted to people for their own persistence in a time-honored practice, the original motive for which had vanished far beyond their ken.

Our author's account of the sepulchral significance both of the sphinx and of the siren is most lucid, and he clearly points out how these borrowed figures became something entirely new, both outwardly and in their spiritual significance, the moment they entered Hellas. Athenian sentiment and taste could not finally appropriate the conception of the sirens as they appeared in Homeric legend. "The siren of Attic tombs," says our author, "has greatly modified her nature under the kindly influence of Attic poetry and art. She came from the East almost certainly as a malicious and devouring dæmon. But in the ordinary custom of Attic tombs of the fifth and fourth centuries she becomes friendly and sympathetic." This fixed the significance of the siren for later Greece, and among the terracotta figurines found in the burial-ground at Myrina, no figures are more full of the incommunicable thrill of beautified regretfulness than those magical forms and faces of sirens scattered in profusion through the soil which enshrouded the beloved dead. But the necropolis of Myrina contained no sculptured tombs, and belongs mainly to the Greco-Roman period, which is not touched by the book in hand.

To return, then, to our author, he certainly has not justified a dictum laid down in his preface, that the Attic literature of Greece belonged to a class, an aristocracy; for nothing is more happy or striking than the constant use he has made of the tragedians as well as of the Anthology in pointing the meaning of his sculptured records of Atheniam sorrow for the dead. Nor does it seem likely that he could defend in the long run quite such an extreme statement about Homer as that "It is really remarkable how nearly the Homeric theories of the soul correspond with the facts recorded by that cautious and sceptical body of inquirers, 'The Psychical Society.'" Even Rohde, who has chosen to draw his whole picture of Hellenic beliefs as to a future life without much regard to delicate shades of transition and with a sad neglect of half-lights, has said nothing quite so lurid as this in his account of the "rationalizing" drift of Homer.

There is another point made in Prof. Gardner's striking account of the monuments of Dexileos and Aristonautes commemorated because they died on the field of battle, but sculptured in the most lively attitudes of warfare, which seems open to question.

"An artist," he says, speaking of Dexileos, "such as those who have modelled the tombs of St. Paul's and Westminster, would probably have sculptured him smitten to death, falling back in the arms of a grateful country; perhaps would have added, above, an angel crowning him with a wreath of celestial reward. But the Greek artists of the good period could not find in defeat and death any elements worthy of their art; they must represent those whom they portrayed in the moment of success and victory, not in that of overthrow. The difference is very suggestive. Infinitely inferior to Greek art in charm, in simplicity and dignity, modern art introduces higher elements than were usually taken into account in Hellas. From the artistic point of view the ancients were right; but from the ethical point of view there may be more to be said for the moderns."

The one thing which it is impossible to allow is that such representations as those in Westminster and St. Paul's thus alluded to stand for modern art. Most emphatically we protest that in such funereal monstrosities no higher element than melodrama can possibly be said to be introduced. If such things can pass for modern art, it is high time to agitate for a purgation of the two places of state burial in London.

But we must not part save in amity from so truly delightful a book, and will close, after noting the fascinating chapter at the end on the Sidon sarcophagi, and the really unique account of the Mausoleum in chapter xiv., with Prof. Gardner's wonderfully happy summary of the nobility and dignity which exhale alike from the roughest and the most finished of Athenian sculptured tombs. "Like the maidens of the Parthenon frieze, all these human beings behave as if in the immediate presence of the gods. They embody nobility and repose." Indeed, Prof. Gardner has here answered his own heretical statement that the melodramatic vacuity of certain monuments in St. Paul's embodies a higher element, and better satisfies an ethical standard, than do the sculptured tombs of Hellas.

The Girlhood of Maria Josepha Holroyd [Lady Stanley of Alderley]. Recorded in Letters of a Hundred Years Ago: from 1776 to 1796. Edited by J. H. Adeane. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

THE pair of silhouettes which ornament the cover of this volume are an excellent introduction to its contents. Before the reader reaches the title-page he is reminded by a profile of Gibbon facing another profile of Lord Sheffield that the peer was the historian's most familiar friend, and that the name of Holroyd will always be remembered so long as men, prompted by admiration of the 'Decline and Fall,' are led on to explore its author's life. Gibbon is both directly and indirectly concerned in this bundle of family letters. His authority is invoked by the editor to vouch for the unusual parts of Maria Holroyd, and he appears *passim* in the correspondence which she conducted with her friends and relatives. Moreover, a visit paid to him by Lord Sheffield with his wife and daughters furnishes the central action of the piece. The party reached Lausanne via Paris, travelling through France just after Louis

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XVI.'s attempted flight to General Bouillé and detention at Varennes. On the journey and in Lausanne they met several leading nobles with whom they were again thrown in at Coblenz when on their way home. Thus Gibbon is very much to the fore, both from his intimacy with the Holroyds and as being the indirect means of their intercourse with many of the *émigrés*. Lord Sheffield was able to return with interest the hospitality which had been shown him on the Continent, by entertaining his former hosts after the stress of Revolution had driven them to seek refuge in England. It is to her close acquaintance with politicians like the Prince de Poix, Malouet, and Lally-Tollendal that the letters of Miss Holroyd owe most of the historical importance which they possess.

The personal interest of this correspondence is considerable. Maria Holroyd was a precocious child who did not lose her brightness with the approach of early womanhood. Gibbon may be suspected of falling into the vein of eighteenth-century flattery when he praises her to her face, but one also observes that he uses the same expressions in writing to persons outside the Holroyd circle. Though Edridge's portrait does not make her out a beauty, it shows intelligence, and her letters supply evidence of the sprightliness with which a successful woman of fashion must be endowed. She was born in 1771 and married to Mr. J. T. Stanley, afterwards the first Lord Stanley of Alderley, in 1796. Her letters now published open with a few childish efforts and end with her marriage. They begin to be worth notice in 1791, the date of her first visit to the Continent, and illustrate her life with fulness from its twentieth to its twenty-fifth year. Thus they cover French politics from the end of the Constituent Assembly to the installation of the Directory, and with French politics they deal more than with any other one subject. They are addressed principally to the writer's aunt, Sarah Martha Holroyd, and to a member of the family at Sheffield Place, Miss Anne Firth. Answers are often included, so that the effect of a mutual rather than of a one-sided correspondence is preserved.

One of Miss Holroyd's strong points was that she hardly ever ventured into the field of political dissertation, where she would have been a failure, but contented herself with writing free and frank descriptions of what she saw and did. Her breeding must have been excellent, for she never ran into girlish ecstasies over her experiences and acquaintance, though both would have gone to a weak head. That she kept her eyes open is quite clear. Her narrative is circumstantial to a degree, and bears traces of depending for fact on jottings made at the moment. Her account of the Apotheosis of Voltaire reminds one of the modern reporter. We select a passage from it to show her minuteness and the quality of her style:

"Garlands of Roses, oak leaves, etc., were thrown on the figure of Mirabeau as it passed, and women, as well as men, clapped and bravoed enough to deafen anybody who had not the spirit of Democracy as perfect as themselves. Then a plan and model of the Bastille; pieces of the Bastille, cut into the form of and painted to look like books, and old pieces of armour and cannon balls which were found in the Bastille when it was taken and destroyed; flags were carried with sentences out of Voltaire's works in favor of Liberty; after these, a gilt figure of Voltaire, seated on a chair, was brought and placed before the House. . . . Then followed a Case with Voltaire's Works very richly bound; National Guards; Deputies from the Municipality, Theatres, and Académies de Musique et de Danse. Some of the Poissardes who distinguished themselves most in the famous Revolution, marched in the procession in a most ludicrous dress, perfectly amphibious, for they were neither man nor woman. They had a petticoat on, which gave one reason to suppose they were females, while the Coat and Epaulette appeared as much the contrary; but the best information I could get, said they were women. I really supposed they had been men in women's clothes."

These are only a few lines taken from four pages of compact detail.

For one whom birth and friendships threw into the aristocratic camp Miss Holroyd, writing from Paris, Strassburg, and Coblenz, is tolerably impartial. While she notes the harangues of Brissot and Pétion at the Jacobin Club, and the popularity of "Ça ira! Ça ira! les Aristocrates à la Lanterne!" she likewise notes the trouble caused at Strassburg by the singing of "O Richard! O mon Roi!" and the jealousies of the *émigrés* at Coblenz. She reached the last named place on her return from Lausanne in October of 1791, just after the league of Pillnitz had given the Comte d'Artois and his band great courage. The town was overflowing with French notabilities, and Lord Sheffield's party had to hunt for beds to sleep in with as much diligence as is now required in Lucerne during the month of August.

"After the Servants had inquired at every Inn in the town, and at many private Houses, we could only have one miserable room without a bit of Furniture, and only one Bed, without Curtains. This was just better than nothing, and we four women adjusted ourselves as well as we could on Mattresses upon the Ground; Mama occupying the bed, which broke down as soon as she got in. Papa slept in the boat, as there was no place for him to dress and undress in, the house was so full."

Lord Sheffield, however, had the *entrée*, and met every one, from the Elector and princes of the blood down to counts and field-marshals. Of all the French nobles subsequently received as honored guests at Sheffield Place Lally-Tollendal became most closely identified with the family. No one interested in his career can afford to neglect the information about him which is contained in Miss Holroyd's letters.

We shall say little about the Gibbon element in these pages. It is of almost equal volume with the element of French politics and will perhaps attract more readers. For present purposes it may be lightly dismissed, because it does not add anything of much moment to our knowledge of that imposing historian's character or surroundings. Miss Holroyd had a sincere affection for him and admired him too. She wondered why he could remain in Lausanne, "for there does not appear to me anybody with whom he can converse on equal terms, or who is worthy to hear him." Yet she does not seem to have appreciated the value of his life-work, for the words in which she adverts to his death fall wholly short of the occasion: "We have lost a true and sincere friend, indeed, and just now he is a particular loss to Papa. . . . There is no other person who has half the influence that poor man had. The best sense always guided by the best Judgment."

While one does not scrutinize private letters with a view to detecting errors of fact, we can say that Miss Holroyd's references to public affairs are more than usually accurate. She makes a mistake when she says of Count Rumford in 1796: "He has lived the last twenty years of his life at Munich, as Prime Minister to the Elector of Bavaria," and her authority for the statement that the snowy Alps of Bern are seventy miles distant from the Lake of Thun is somewhat shady. Addison, by the way, puts the same mountain chain in the Grisons. Miss Holroyd's utterances on subjects within her proper range bear the stamp of truth, and her letters deserve the dainty garb in which they are presented.

Higher Education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland. By Hermann Schoenfeld, Ph.D., Professor of Modern Languages and Continental History in the Columbian University, Washington, D C.: being Chap. xv. of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1894-95. Washington. 1896.

THE average person connects with the name of Poland that of Jan Sobieski, the partition of the country and its consequent disappearance from the sisterhood of European states. To a few it still preserves a semblance of national existence in the cultivation of a native literature, of which Sienkiewicz is almost the only known representative. But one can almost count on his fingers the names of those Americans who are acquainted with the fact that a renaissance of letters and of the national spirit has been in progress for the last quarter of a century in the dislocated members of the quondam Polish kingdom, which gives fair promise soon to rival, if not to surpass, its golden age in the sixteenth century. Poland is far from being dead, and at no time has the national hymn, "Jeszcze Polska nie zginela" (Poland is not yet lost), proved so prophetic as now. It is true, the regeneration of the country in a political sense is as yet a distant dream, but intellectually and morally it is all that can be desired. Under these circumstances, nothing could be more timely than a report on the higher education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland, the purpose of which is in a substantial manner, by dint of dates, facts, and figures, to bring before our eyes the feverish activity of this Slavic race.

After giving a general summary of the education and of the historical vicissitudes of the country, and a discussion of the prominent features of the language, the author passes on to the condition of Polish learning in the sixteenth century and the dissemination of the printing-press in Poland; then follows a succinct review of the higher education in the period of the Reformation, and finally a report on the state of higher learning at the present time. Mr. Schoenfeld does not profess to give an exhaustive treatise on the subject (this he promises in a larger volume), but only a general review, to form a chapter in the report of the Commissioner of Education. He has acquitted himself well of his task and deserves our commendation. There are, however, a number of minor matters that we should like to see improved in his larger work. For example, we should like to see him quote Morfill less and original sources more. Morfill, to be sure, has done creditable work in introducing Slavic literature to an English public, but as he himself draws almost exclusively on foreign (mainly Slavic) sources, we regret to see so many facts got at second hand. Under the chapter on Language we find some incorrect statements, showing an imperfect appreciation of linguistic facts. The statement that "the syllable with the vowel which has the tonic accent is long" occurs, indeed, in some grammars, but is entirely wrong; so, too, the

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author has probably never heard the hard *l* pronounced in Polish, since he makes it "similar to *ll* in Spanish." A Russian philologist has described the sound as "liquida lateralis lingualis prior dorsalis postdentalis," which is both scientifically exact and æsthetically beautiful!

In matters of transliteration from Slavic languages no unanimity exists among English writers, some trying the impossible task of giving English phonetic equivalents for native sounds, others making a half-hearted attempt at exact etymological renderings of the original. When the English first became acquainted with Russia, in the sixteenth century, they transcribed the many foreign words as they heard them, and they succeeded in approaching tolerably near the native pronunciation. In the eighteenth century the French set the precedent for writing Russian with French equivalents, and now we generally get an unhappy blending of these two methods with the etymological system; but from this nothing but chaos can result. In popular literature not much can be done to remove this awkwardness, but in scientific or generally serious literature, in bibliographies and catalogues, nothing but the etymological method ought to be attempted—*i. e.*, those Slavic languages which already use a Latin alphabet must be left in the form in which we find them, with the diacritical marks, if available, placed over or under the letters. The Slavic languages that use the Cyrillic alphabet (Russian, Ruthenian, Serbian, Bulgarian) possess very convenient Latin correspondents, such as we find in the Croatian, which is hardly anything else than Serbian written with Roman type. This system is universally used by philologists (especially in the *Archiv f. Sl. Ph.*), and is as good as can be desired. In Mr. Schoenfeld's report there is no consistency in this matter: on p. 767 we find the scientific transliteration, elsewhere a phonetic form, and in the word *varshawskago* on p. 750 not less than three methods are combined in one.

A similar diversity exists in the use of the word Slavic, for which our author, and with him many others, uses somewhat indiscriminately Slavic, Slavonic, Slavonian. This multiplicity arises from the fact that no two Slavic nations use the same generic word. Only so much is certain—the stem of all such words is connected with *slovo*, and means, as now accepted by philologists, 'the people endowed with speech,' just as the Slavs call foreigners, particularly Germans, *Němec*, mute, *i. e.*, "barbaroi." Unfortunately, Mr. Schoenfield brings forward the antiquated etymology from *slava*, 'glory,' making the Slavs 'the glorious people.' Extreme Panslavists alone now cherish this derivation. The chaos is still further increased by the many names, with *slav, slov* for their stem, borne by a large number of local subdivisions. The Russians of the Middle Ages called the Novgorodians Slovenians; Slavonia is a (Croatian) province of Austria; Slovenians are collectively the Slavs of Carniola, Carinthia, Styria; the Slovák is a dialect, with an independent literature, of Bohemian. In view of all this, philologists and other scholars in Germany and France long ago appropriated the shorter form Slav and Slavic (*slavisch*) for the generic name of the whole family, leaving Slavonian and Slavonic as derivatives from Slavonia. There is no reason why English and American writers should not follow this excellent precedent. The confusion in the report will be seen from the following quotation: "(Polish) surpasses in importance and scope all the other *Slavonic* literatures taken together—*i. e.*, Bohemian, Servian, Croatian, *Slavonian*, Russian, Bulgarian" (p. 714). Does the author mean Slovenian or Old-Church-Slavic by Slavonian? In another place he speaks of *Panslavic* grammar as taught in the University of Warsaw (p. 756). In justice to that institution be it said that no such absurdity is attempted there. Krizanic's 'Panslavic Language' has long since been abandoned by all who make pretence at Slavic scholarship. The author has merely wrongly interpreted the word "obsceslavjanskij," which he found in the catalogue, and which means 'comparative Slavic,' or, rather, *Urslavisch*.

We hope all these defects will be eliminated in the author's larger work.

Thomas of Monmouth's Life and Miracles of St. William of Norwich. Edited by Augustus Jessopp, D.D., and Montague Rhodes James, Litt.D. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

One of the most repulsive features of Jewish persecution by Christians is the ascription to Jews of the practice of immolating Christians in the performance of secret and hideous rites. Belief in this has existed for ages and is as yet by no means extinct. It has no authoritative warrant, for when Gregory XIII., in 1581, in his atrocious bull against the Jews, enumerated the offences which subjected them to the jurisdiction of the Inquisition, he made no mention of this, although he specified a custom ascribed to them of attaching a lamb to a cross and spitting on it, or otherwise insulting it, in derision of the crucifixion. Still the belief continues to exist and is made the basis of persecution, though not to the extent of the massacres for which, during the Middle Ages, it sometimes served as an excuse. In 1817 the Russian Government was obliged to issue a ukase to put an end to frequent prosecutions brought against Jews for such alleged offences in Russian Poland, and in 1840 a firman from the Sultan was rendered necessary in consequence of the torturing to death of prominent Jews of Damascus in the effort to obtain confessions arising from the disappearance of a priest named Thomaso—proceedings in which the French consul took an active and sinister part. As lately as 1892 the *Kreutz-Zeitung* deplored the miscarriage of justice in the failure to convict a Jewish butcher, named Buschoff, of Xanten near Düsseldorf, accused of murdering a Christian boy, and the *Germania* asserted that such sanguinary rites are encouraged in the Talmud, in spite of the notorious fact that rabbinical Judaism is especially scrupulous in the matter of bloodshed.

In view of these well-known scruples, ingenuity has been taxed to devise some explanation of the assumed propensity to offer up a Christian as a sacrifice during the Passover celebration. It has been gravely asserted that a Jewess in labor could not bring forth without being anointed with Christian blood which was thus procured. This would require such a constant succession of victims that a more plausible reason was found in the allegation that on Easter-day all Jews were afflicted with a bloody flux, for which Christian blood was the only remedy. In the book before us (p. 93) we find an earlier and a less prosaic explanation. Theobald, a converted Jew, informed his gaping fellow-monks of Norwich that, in accordance with old tradition, the annual sacrifice of a Christian child, in parody of the crucifixion, would eventually restore to the promised land the Jews of the Diaspora. Every year the leading rabbis assembled in Narbonne and determined by lot the country in which the offering was to be made; then in that land the town which was to perform it was selected in the same manner. In 1144, by this process, Norwich was chosen, and the result was the murder of the boy named William who figures in hagiography as St. William of Norwich, with his feast-day on March 25.

To all students interested in the growth of legends and fables the work which Doctors Jessopp and James have laid before us will be found indispensable. The martyrdom in question is the earliest recorded case of the kind, though it is by no means likely that such a belief could have assumed a shape so definite and complete as we find it here without having had predecessors. Hitherto the story has been known only through more or less imperfect narratives derived from the contemporary account by William of Monmouth. The fortunate discovery of a MS. of this work has enabled the editors to give it in full with all the necessary apparatus—a translation and an introduction in which everything that antiquarian learning and research can bring to bear is utilized to enable us to realize the environment in which occurred the martyrdom of the boy-saint, with such side-lights as serve to elucidate the probabilities of the story. Photographs, also, are given of all surviving representations of St. William to be found on the screens of churches at the present day.

The interest of the work, moreover, is by no means confined to the question of the blood-ritual, for we gain a very perfect view of the process of the manufacture of saints. Why a child who had been supposedly entrapped and murdered by Jews should become at once a saintly martyr, any more than one who met death by violence in any other form, is a problem in superstition not easily solved; but the example set in this instance was repeatedly followed during the Middle Ages, and was ratified by the Holy See in the case of St. Simeon of Trent, crucified in 1472. We here see how the holiness of St. William began to show itself in visions and miracles; how Prior Elias of the Benedictine house where he was buried refused to countenance the belief, and resisted the efforts of Bishop William Turbe of Norwich, who was determined to have it recognized, and how, after the death of Elias in 1149, his successor was more pliable, after which miracles multiplied and the cult became established. A new and vigorous saint of unquestioned thaumaturgic power was a valuable acquisition, for the oblations of pilgrims and the ex-votos of the sick were a source of reliable revenue, and all churches and religious houses were apt to be on the lookout for such means of increasing their income. The invention of miracles was merely a pious fraud, which did not even require imagination, for Gregory the Great and Gregory of Tours were always at hand to supply models from which to borrow. A large part of William of Monmouth's work consists of a recital of these marvels, and Dr. Jessopp points out a number which are evidently derived from older sources. Puerile as many of these may seem to us, they throw much incidental light on the manners and customs and beliefs of an age of which our knowledge is imperfect.

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Grover Cleveland. By James Lowry Whittle. With two portraits. London and New York: Frederick Warne & Co.

THIS sketch, by an Englishman, was written before the Presidential election of last year. It is, the author says, a study of "Mr. Cleveland's attempt to apply the original teaching of Jefferson and his followers to the Republic of to-day." Brought within a small compass, and told with considerable skill, the story is very different from the dreary record some readers might expect from this definition. It is full of the most dramatic interest, for it gives us the picture of a great struggle by a political leader of courage, strong will, and individuality against malevolent intrigue and persistent corruption, ignorance, and prejudice embodied in the Government of which he is the head. The book is not likely to be passed over, for Cleveland's vigorous character invests the narrative with the sort of interest that "politics" never gave to anything, and this although it relates only to his public career. Of the man in private station we get no sort of glimpse. His tastes, friendships, interests, whims, passions, enthusiasms, or vanities are as if they were not, and this although he has lived both in New York and in Washington, and though the inquisitiveness of the press has never willingly respected his privacy. We see him here solely in his relation to the people whose rights he has protected, solely as the trustee of the greatest elective political trust in the world, battling with fraud and wrong, and proclaiming his unalterable loyalty to the immortal principles which underlie free government.

So far as domestic politics goes, the author's view of Cleveland would not differ much from that held by the mass of his supporters (his constant popular majorities have been one of the most marked features of his career). The fact that the great danger to popular institutions with us (is it not so everywhere?) lies in the tendency of private interests to absorb the functions of government, is brought out with a good deal of force, and in Cleveland's mouth "Public office is a public trust" becomes a battle-cry, while his state papers on economical questions take rank as the work of a true statesman. When he summoned the country to attack the tariff in 1887, not a politician but deplored his indiscretion; in 1892 tariff reform swept the country. In 1895 he declared that the greenbacks must be retired, and in 1897 we are about to witness the appointment of a Secretary of the Treasury pledged to this policy by the party which is responsible for having kept the greenbacks afloat.

In foreign affairs the author has a more difficult task, for even a eulogist cannot make out that Mr. Cleveland's foreign policy has been consistent. A fair enough account is given of the Keiley and Murchison incidents, of the President's policy as regards the Sandwich Islands and Cuba, and of the fisheries and Venezuela imbroglios; but Mr. Whittle fails to mention the withdrawal of the Frelinghuysen-Zavala treaty, which was important as showing a sane view of the canal question.

The evident haste with which the book has been compiled has marred its accuracy, and consequently its effectiveness. Mr. Cleveland was not "at the head of his profession" when he became a candidate for high office (p. 8). If Mrs. Cleveland was born in 1864, she cannot be said to have been "not yet twenty" in 1886 (pp. 85-86.) The statement on p. 75 that in his dealings with foreign governments the President has "hardly an even share of power" with the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Senate, will hardly be assented to by any one who remembers that he is in daily and, if necessary, hourly communication with them, while the Senate has no direct communication with these governments and generally acts in reference to foreign affairs only on the President's motion. That "Baby Cleveland" was a popular cry in the election of 1892 (p. 87), we deny; nor are we willing to admit that the picture of the American view of the relation of the United States to the rest of the world given at p. 219 is a true description of the real public opinion of to day. If it were, our case would be hopeless, for to be American would mean to be silly. Cleveland himself is an American of the Americans.

Classes and Masses. By W. H. Mallock. Macmillan Co. 1896.

WHAT Mr. Mallock has undertaken in this little book is what must be continually undertaken in every country where government by the people prevails. In every such country there will always be found demagogues whose energies will be devoted to stirring up discontent with existing institutions. They will proclaim, as Mr. Mallock says, that society as now organized is essentially unjust; that its "tendency is to confine the benefits of progress more and more strictly to the few, and to push down the masses of the people into ever deepening poverty and servitude, rendering their chances of making even a bare living more and more uncertain." The proper way to deal with such complaints is not to meet them with ridicule and denunciation, but to investigate them; to ascertain by scientific inquiry whether they have any basis or not. If it appears that they have a substantial basis, then the demagogues were right in endeavoring to effect changes. If it can be shown that they have no basis, then the demagogues were wrong, and we must trust to the intelligence of the community to repudiate them.

We should very quickly exhaust our space were we to attempt to state the results of Mr. Mallock's investigation. He has prepared a perfect magazine of arguments ready for use by public speakers or by any one who has occasion to refute popular fallacies; but as his facts are drawn from English sources, they are only indirectly serviceable in this country. The inferences from them, however, are so unavoidable and so far-reaching as to establish a presumption that they are true outside of Great Britain. The condition of the poor may have improved more in that country than in others; but the fact that it has so greatly improved there—under the blighting influence of gold monometallism, it may be remarked in passing—proves that the present constitution of society is not necessarily evil.

So far as actual pauperism is concerned, Mr. Mallock shows that in proportion to population it has declined one-half within the period of a generation. The middle class—those having incomes between £150 and £1,000—increased between 1850 and 1880 from 330,000 to 990,000. The rich—those having incomes over £1,000—have not increased so rapidly, and with the exception of a few hundred persons their average wealth has not increased so much as that of the middle class. Since 1880 it is notorious that the great incomes from land have been cut down; and if the total income of the millionaires were divided among the people, it would be for each individual only a shilling a month. As to the working people, their numbers have relatively decreased because so many of them have risen into the middle class, but their income has grown enormously. It amounted in 1860 to as much as the income of all classes in 1800; it amounted in 1880 to as much as the income of all classes in 1850. During the century, average wages have also considerably more than doubled. As to the "idle rich," Mr. Mallock demonstrates that the proportion of unoccupied male adults is as one to sixty, and he contends that the ground rents of the whole country do not exceed a hundred million pounds—sixty millions less than the Socialists claim.

We do not vouch for the correctness of all Mr. Mallock's calculations, although we are satisfied that many of them are unexceptionable. But his book is to be commended to American readers as an illustration of methods of dealing with social discontent which we shall probably have to employ. Its weak point, as in most such efforts, is its employment of possibly defective and misleading statistics; and it is much to be desired that no one who shall attempt similar work in this country will be satisfied without the most conscientious verification of the figures furnished either by Government or by private enterprise.

The Silva of North America. By Charles Sprague Sargent. Vol. X. Liliaceæ to Coniferæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THIS tenth volume of the 'Silva' gives forty-one more of the French reproductions of Mr. Faxon's beautiful plates. For the most part, the French artists have been successful, and with few exceptions have preserved the life-like character which Mr. Faxon has the gift of imparting to his figures. In some of the present plates there is noticeable a tendency to deepen the shadows beyond their true value, but, while this impairs the general effect, it does not touch the accuracy of the outlines. The remarkable steadiness with which Mr. Faxon has adhered to the high ideal with which he started in his illustration of the 'Silva,' gives to these plates, which now pass the five-hundred mark, the same value that the first possessed; their fidelity and artistic feeling are of the highest order. The analyses are well done and heighten the value of each demonstration. In questions which may later arise as to determinations, there can be no doubt as to the originals which Mr. Faxon had in hand.

The text is excellent. Some of the specific differentiations would be, without the accompanying plates, rather obscure, but, with the figures, present few features which would be likely to lead astray. The general descriptions of species are attractive and telling. And in all cases the general accounts of biological and economic aspects are interesting, especially when read in connection with the copious notes and references.

The range of the tenth volume carries the reader beyond the great group of Dicotyledons, extending from magnolias to willows, with which its nine predecessors had to do, and we begin here with the Monocotyledons. These two great groups of plants are distinguished in many ways. Between them, in the system of classification generally followed in this country hitherto, it has been customary to place the Gymnosperms. But of late years it has been shown beyond reasonable doubt that the Gymnosperms are very closely allied

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to the more highly developed relatives of the ferns, and are therefore in the system of classification to be placed near them instead of between the two great groups of flowering plants above referred to. Prof. Sargent has wisely adopted this course.

The Monocotyledons, to which lilies, grasses, and the like belong, do not possess very many arborescent forms. Only two orders of these fall within our geographical limits. The order Liliaceæ contributes eight species, all of yucca. These are the Spanish bayonets and their kin, some of them having a noble or at least striking port. Of palms, the other order within the limits, there are seven species. One of the species of palms fitly commemorates the name of the author of the 'Silva.'

After the Monocotyledons come the Gymnosperms, for it must be remembered that the sequence in this work is from the plants assumed to be highest down to the lower. In the present volume only a few of the Gymnosperms are discussed. These are the Torreyas, junipers, cedars, and their near relatives; the vast group of pines is to find a place in subsequent volumes. The pines will bring this valuable work to a close.

The Yoke of Empire. Sketches of the Queen's Prime Ministers. By Reginald Brett. [With portraits.] Macmillan. 1896.

THIS is an elegant little volume, in which, the preface tells us, "the writer has endeavored to illustrate a single point—the human relation between a constitutional sovereign and her ministers." It is a sufficiently readable account of five of these remarkable men, Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Palmerston, Lord Beaconsfield, and Mr. Gladstone, while the period from 1846 to 1861, when Lord John Russell, Lord Derby, Lord Aberdeen, and Lord Palmerston held the Treasury for longer or shorter periods, is not improperly thrown into a single chapter, under the name of Prince Albert as "Permanent Minister." The writer does not disguise his opinion that Sir Robert Peel occupies much the highest position, whether for talents or character, among these leaders; and such is not unlikely to be the verdict of history. Mr. Brett is remarkably gentle, almost affectionate, towards Lord Melbourne as the Queen's instructor in her duties, and, though severe, hardly unjust to Lord Derby, as too flighty for his high position. He is generally fair to Russell, but he omits to bring out that his ministry was bound to be unsuccessful because the offices were blocked with a flood of Greys and Elliots, appointed out of an exaggerated regard for Russell's former chief and his own wife. The story of how the Queen gradually got over her dislike to Palmerston, Gladstone, and Disraeli is well told, though Mr. Brett hardly makes clear—perhaps he dared not—that such liberality and openness of disposition was much more possible to Victoria herself than to her somewhat narrow, if high-minded, husband.

There are some blots in the book. To say Peel was "ostracised" from political office is thorough journalistic jargon; his position in Parliament was as far from the exile of Aristides or Thucydides as well could be. To call Victoria at eighteen a "child-queen" (p. 4) is ridiculous; and so is it to speak of her husband as a "lad of twenty-two" (p. 39) and a "boy of six and twenty" (p. 70). The American minister in 1838 was not named Stephenson (p. 19). According to the 'Annual Register' for 1837, it was not Lord Conyngham but Lord Albemarle who accompanied the Archbishop in conveying to the Queen the news of her accession (p. 3)—if it is of any consequence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autobiography of Charles Force Deems, D.D., and Memoir by his Sons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. The Forcing-Book. Macmillan. $1.
Bartholomew, J. G. The Pocket Atlas of the World. 10th ed. Putnams. $1.25.
Cutler, E. H. The Ninth Book of Vergil's Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Davenport, C. B. Experimental Morphology. Part I. Effect of Chemical and Physical Agents upon Protoplasm. Macmillan. $2.60
Davidson, John. Miss Armstrong's and Other Circumstances. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Deland, Ellen D. In the Old Herrick House, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.50.
Ellacombe, H. N. The Plant-Lore and Garden Craft of Shakspere. New ed., illustrated. Edward Arnold.
Frazer, R. W. British India. [The Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Gardner, Prof. E. A. A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. Vol II. Macmillan. $1 25.
Henley, W. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Vol. I. Letters, 1804-1813. Macmillan. $1.75.
Henry, Stuart. Hours with Famous Parisians. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Hornung, E. W. A Bride from the Bush. Scribners. 75c.
Howells, W. D. A Previous Engagement. Harpers. 50c.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Florence. Harpers. $1.
Ibsen, Henrik. John Gabriel Borkman. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Jacob, Georg. Altarabische Parallelen zum Alten Testament. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Kingsley, Miss Mary H. Travels in West Africa. Macmillan. $6.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. Plain Tales from the Hills. Soldiers Three and Military Tales. Vols. I. and II. in the "Outward Bound" Edition. Scribners
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLVIII. Reilly-Robins. Macmillan. $3.75
Macaulay's Essays on Addison, Milton and Johnson, and Goldsmith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each 25c.
Macy, Prof. Jesse. The English Constitution: A Commentary on its Nature and Growth. Macmillan. $2.
Matthews, Edith V. B. Six Cups of Chocolate. Harpers. 25c.
Matzke, Prof. J. E. A Primer of French Pronunciation. Henry Holt & Co. 25c.
Meredith, George. An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit. Scribners. $1 25.
Morgan, Sir G. O. The Eclogues of Virgil. Translated into English Hexameter Verse. Henry Frowde.
Newhall, James F.—Ye Great and General Courte in Collonie Times. Lynn, Mass.: Thos. P. Nichols.
Oldenberg, Hermann. Vedic Hymns. Part II. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Orton, Prof Edward. An Account of the Descendants of Thomas Orton of Windsor, Connecticut, 1641 (Principally in the Male Line). Columbus, O.: Nitschke Bros. $2.
Robida, A. Le Mystère de la Rue Carême-Prenant. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Scudder, Eliza. Hymns and Sonnets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. Elementary Geology. Macmillan. $1.40.
Yeoman, W. J. A Woman's Courier. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Unknown to History: A Story of the Captivity of Mary of Scotland. Macmillan.

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